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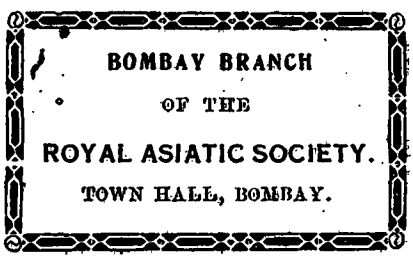

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LABOUR INVESTIGATION COMMITTEE

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

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OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY

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MAIN REPORT

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NOTE.

The estimated cost of the Labour Investigation Committee is as follows:—

	Rs.
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Salaries of Staff	1,26,727
Other Charges	1,39,497
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ERRATA

Sl. No.	*Page No.*
1	*Page i Contents.* Chapter I Introduction. V—Communications *for* page 20 please *read* 22.
2	*Page iv Contents.* Under Chapter XII, the following two headings should be added after "Effects of Standard of Living"— Effects on Employment of Labour .. page 366. Control of Industries .. page 366.
3	*Page* 21, *line* 19, *for* '14' please *read* '4'.
4	*Page* 277. Before 'Conclusions' *for* XXI please *read* XXXI.

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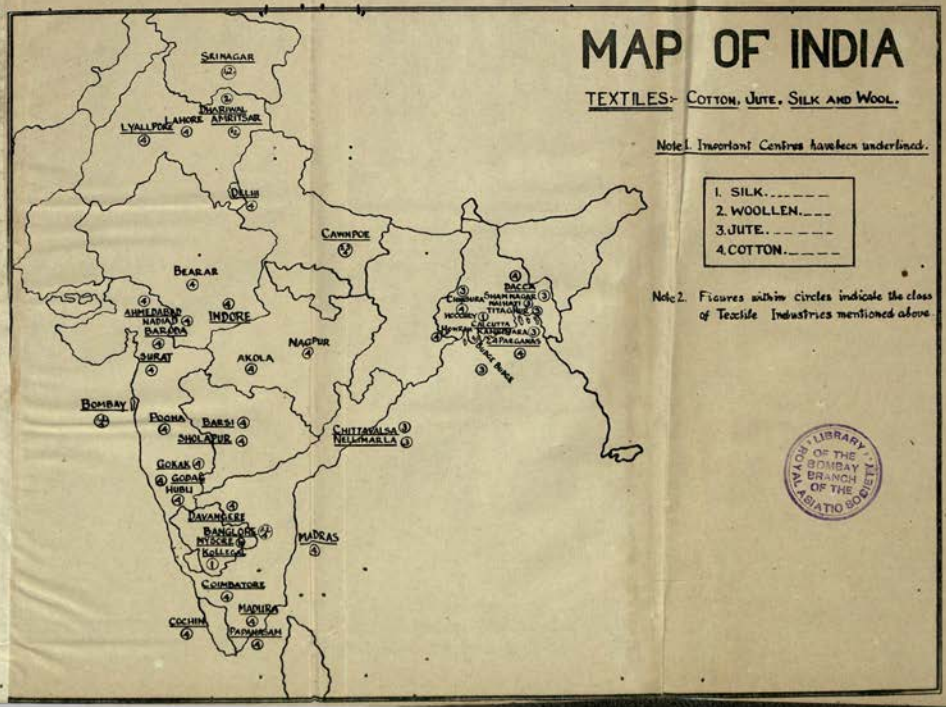
MAP OF INDIA
TEXTILES:- COTTON, JUTE, SILK AND WOOL.
Note 1. Important Centres have been underlined.
1. SILK.
2. WOOLLEN.
3. JUTE.
4. COTTON.
Note 2. Figures within circles indicate the class of Textile Industries mentioned above.
SRINAGAR
AMRITSAR
LYALLPORE
LAHORE
DELHI
CAWNPORE
BERAR
INDORE
AHMEDABAD
NADIAD
BARODA
SURAT
AKOLA
NAGPUR
BOMBAY
POONA
BARSI
SHOLAPUR
CHITTAVALSA
NELLIMARLA
GOKAK
GODAG
HUBLI
DAVANGERE
BANGLORE
MYSORE
KOLLEGAL
MADRAS
COIMBATORE
MADURA
COCHIN
PAPANASAM
BALLY
CALCUTTA
KANKINARA
24 PARGANAS
BARRACK BORE
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MAP OF INDIA

CENTRES OF PERENNIAL FACTORIES OTHER THAN TEXTILES.

Note: Centres covered by ad-hoc surveys have been underlined.

1. DOCKYARDS.
2. TANNERIES AND LEATHER.
3. TRAMWAY WORKS.
4. RICE MILLS.
5. POTTERIES.
6. SUGAR.
7. CHEMICALS.
8. MATCHES
9. PAPER.
10. SHELLAC.
11. OIL MILLS.
12. CEMENT
13. GLASS.

Note: Figures within circles indicate the class of industry or industries mentioned above.

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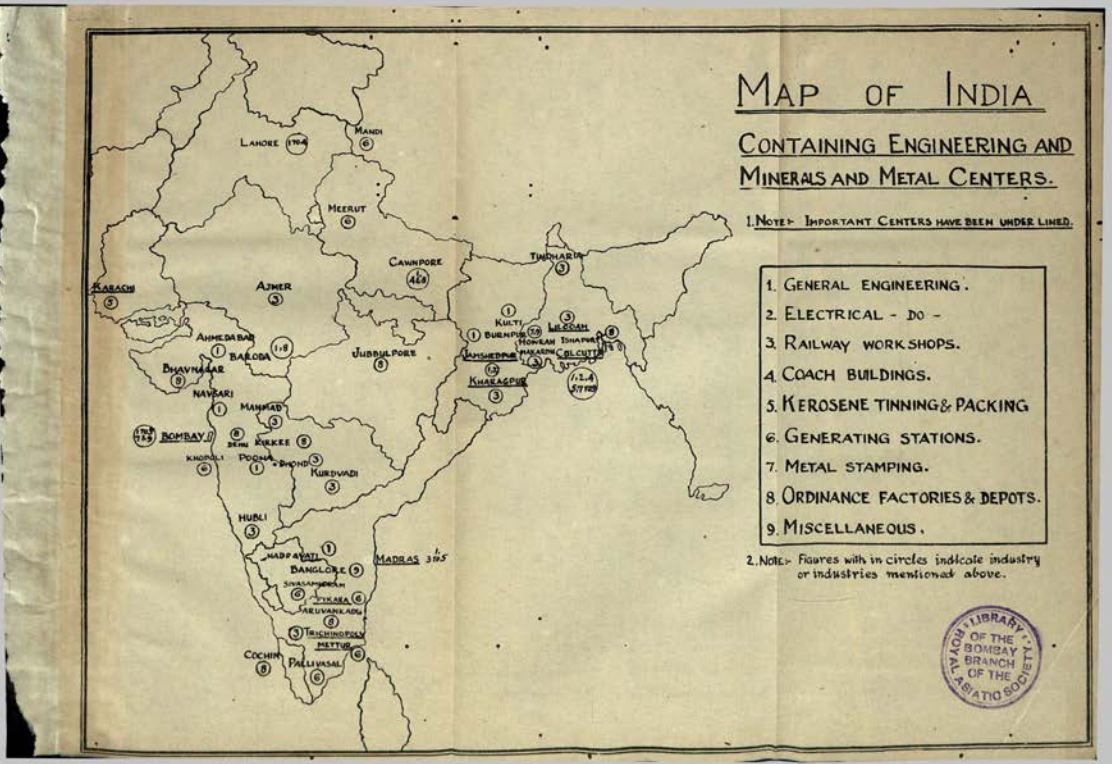
MAP OF INDIA
CONTAINING ENGINEERING AND MINERALS AND METAL CENTERS.
1. NOTE:- IMPORTANT CENTERS HAVE BEEN UNDER LINED.
1. GENERAL ENGINEERING.
2. ELECTRICAL - DO -
3. RAILWAY WORKSHOPS.
4. COACH BUILDINGS.
5. KEROSENE TINNING & PACKING
6. GENERATING STATIONS.
7. METAL STAMPING.
8. ORDINANCE FACTORIES & DEPOTS.
9. MISCELLANEOUS.
2. NOTE:- Figures with in circles indicate industry or industries mentioned above.
LAHORE
MANDI
MEERUT
CAWNPORE
TUNDHARIA
KARACHI
AJMER
KULTI
BURNPUR
HOWRAH
SHALIMAR
CALCUTTA
LILOOAH
ISHAPUR
JAMSHEDPUR
KHARAGPUR
AHMEDABAD
BARODA
JUBBULPORE
BHAVNAGAR
NAVSARI
MANMAD
BOMBAY
KIRKEE
POONA
KHOPOLI
DHOND
KURDUADI
HUBLI
MADRAS
BANGLORE
SIVASAMUDRAM
SALEM
ARUVANKADU
TRICHINOPOLY
METTUR
COCHIN
PALLAVASAL
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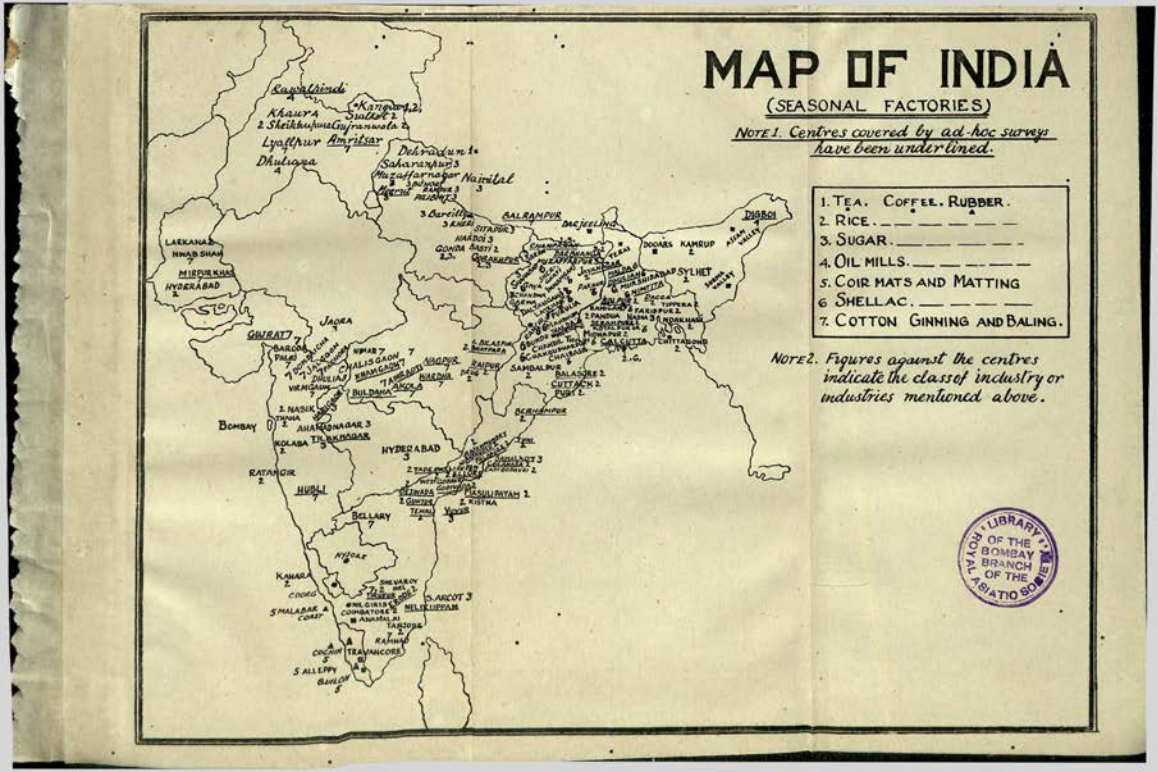
MAP OF INDIA
(SEASONAL FACTORIES)
NOTE 1. Centres covered by ad-hoc surveys have been underlined.
1. TEA. COFFEE. RUBBER.
2. RICE.
3. SUGAR.
4. OIL MILLS.
5. COIR MATS AND MATTING
6. SHELLAC.
7. COTTON GINNING AND BALING.
NOTE 2. Figures against the centres indicate the class of industry or industries mentioned above.
Rawalpindi
Kanpur 2, Delhi 2
Khaura 2
Sheikhupura
Gujranwala 2
Lyallpur
Amritsar
Dhulipa 4
Dehradun 1
Saharanpur 3
Muzaffarnagar
Nainital
Bareilly 3
Kheri
Sitapur
Hardoi 3
Gonda
Basti 2
Balrampur
Darjeeling
Digboi
Dooars
Kamrup 2
Sylhet
Larkana
Nwab Shah
Mirpurkhas
Hyderabad
Jadra
Gujrat 7
Baroda
Palej
Nwar 7
Chalisgaon
Khandesh 7
Amner
Raipur
Sambalpur
Balasore 2
Cuttack 2
Puri 2
Ahmednagar 3
Nasik
Thana 2
Bombay
Kolaba
Dharwar
Hyderabad 3
Ratnagiri 2
Hubli 7
Bellary 7
Kistna
Kanara 2
Coorg
Malabar 4
Coast
Salem 3
Nilgiris
Coimbatore 2
Madurai
Tanjore
Cochin
Travancore
Kollam
Alleppy
Bombay 5
Calcutta 2
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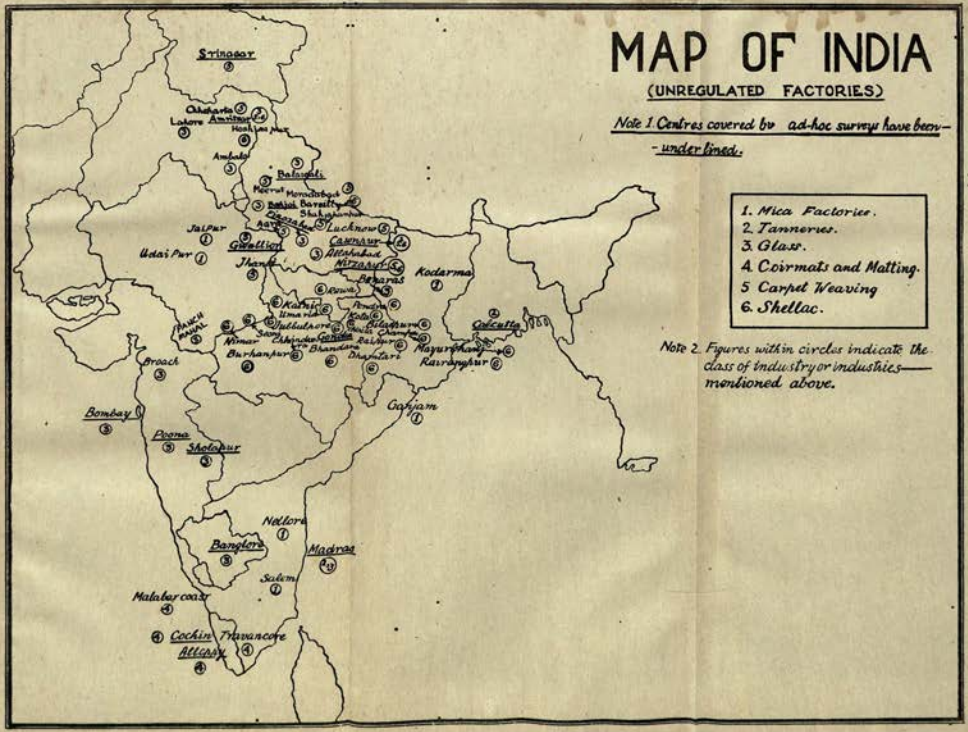
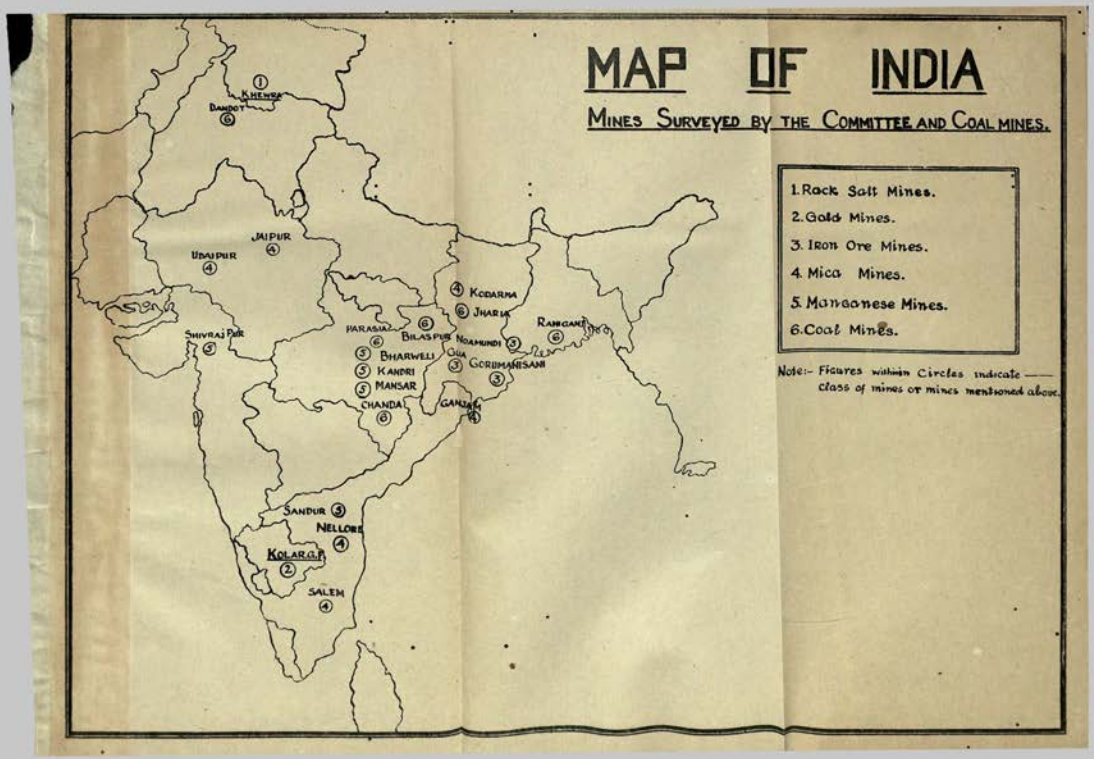
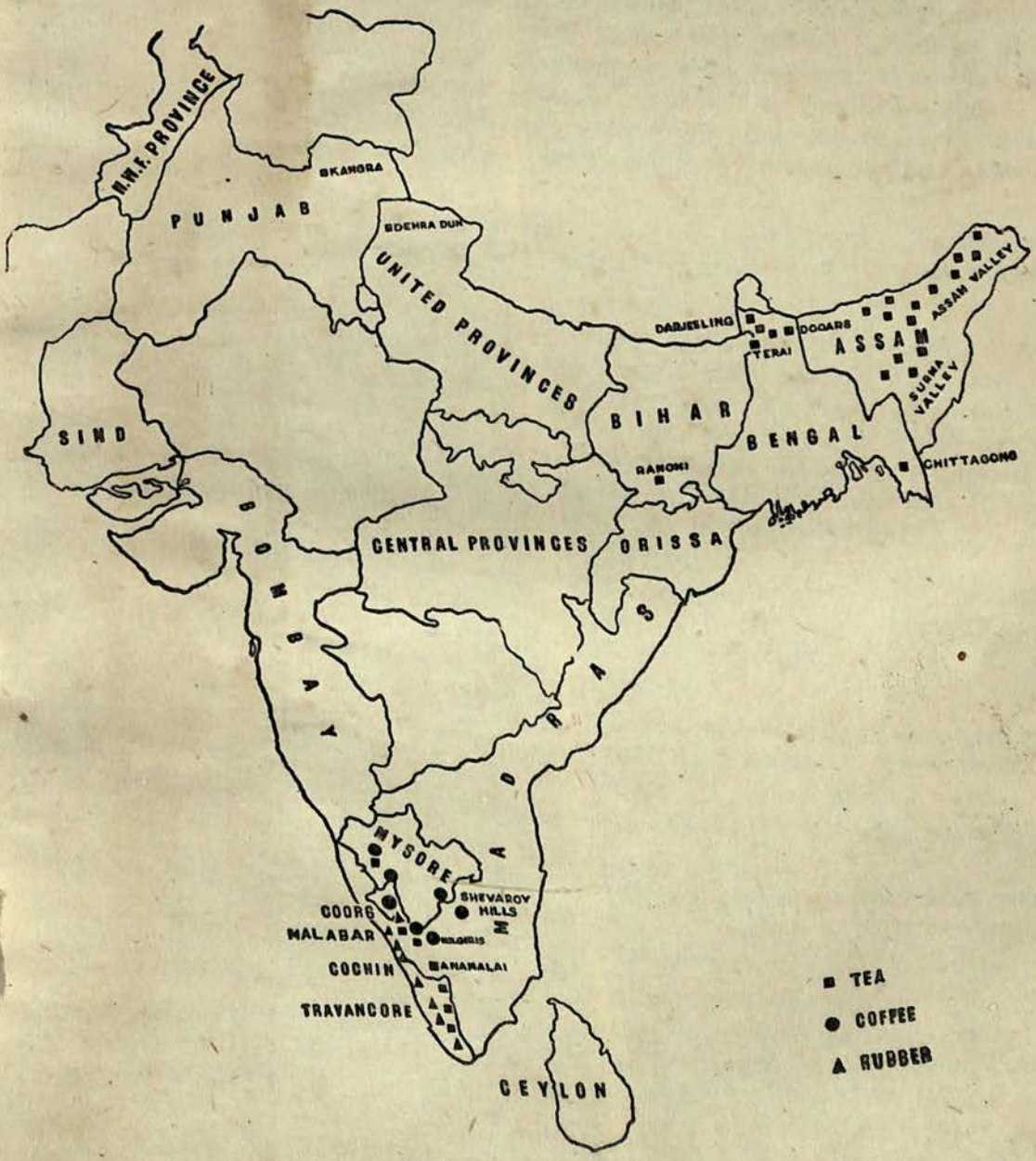

MAP OF INDIA
(UNREGULATED FACTORIES)
Note 1. Centres covered by ad-hoc surveys have been-
-underlined.
1. Mica Factories.
2. Tanneries.
3. Glass.
4. Coirmats and Matting.
5 Carpet Weaving
6. Shellac.
Note 2. Figures within circles indicate the class of industry or industries—mentioned above.
Srinagar
Chharta
Lahore
Amritsar
Amballa
Meerut
Moradabad
Bareilly
Shahjahanpur
Lucknow
Agra
Jaipur
Gwalior
Cawnpur
Allahabad
Mirzapur
Benares
Udai Pur
Jhansi
Kotarma
Katni
Umaria
Jubbulpore
Satna
Rewah
Rampur
Kodla
Chanda
Calcutta
Nimach
Chhindwara
Gaisabad
Raipur
Mayurbhanj
Rairakhpur
Burhanpur
Dhamtari
Broach
Gobjam
Bombay
Poona
Sholapur
Nellore
Bangalore
Madras
Salem
Malabar coast
Cochin
Travancore
Alleppy


MAP OF INDIA
MINES SURVEYED BY THE COMMITTEE AND COAL MINES.
1. Rock Salt Mines.
2. Gold Mines.
3. Iron Ore Mines.
4. Mica Mines.
5. Manganese Mines.
6. Coal Mines.
Note:- Figures within Circles indicate —— class of mines or mines mentioned above.
KHEWRA
DANDOT
JAIPUR
UMAIPUR
SHIVRAJ PUR
KODARMA
JHARIA
RANIGANJ
PARASIA
BILASPUR
NOAMUNDI
BHARWELI
KANDRI
MANSAR
CHANDA
GUA
GORUMAHISANI
GANGAM
SANDUR
NELLORE
KOLAR G.F.
SALEM

MAP OF INDIA
Plantation Areas



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PRELIMINARY

Appointment of Committee and its Terms of Reference

The Tripartite Labour Conference passed unanimously the following resolution in September 1943:—

> "This Tripartite Labour Conference recommends that, with a view to provide adequate materials on which to plan a policy of social security for labour, the Central Government in co-operation with the Governments of Provinces of British India, Indian States and the Chamber of Princes should immediately set up machinery to investigate questions of wages and earnings, employment and housing and social conditions generally, and that as soon as possible after receipt of the required statistics and other data the Central Government should appoint a mixed Committee to formulate plans of social security."

The Labour Investigation Committee was appointed by the Government of India in the Department of Labour by a resolution which runs as follows:—

> "In pursuance of this (Tripartite Labour Conference) resolution and in order that information may be collected bearing upon various aspects of social security, so as to enable the Planning Committee subsequently to be set up to draw up a programme of social security for labour in India, the Governor-General-in-Council is pleased to appoint a Committee of Enquiry to be known as Labour Investigation Committee. The Committee will be composed of:—
>
> (1) Mr. D. V. Rege, I.C.S., Chairman.
> (2) Mr. S. R. Deshpande, M.B.E., Member.
> (3) Dr. Ahmad Mukhtar, Member.
> (4) Mr. B. P. Adarkar, Member and Secretary.

and its terms of reference will be as follows:—

> (a) To collect data relating *inter alia* to wages and earnings, employment, housing and social conditions of labour and in particular of industrial labour, in India, and
>
> (b) to investigate and report *inter alia* on the following matters:—
>
> (1) the risks which bring about insecurity,
> (2) the needs of labour, by various classes, to meet such risks,
> (3) the methods most suitable for meeting such risks, and
> (4) housing and factory conditions.

The Headquarters of the Committee will be at Simla".

The Committee were asked to extend their investigations generally to all industrial and semi-industrial labour covered by the Royal Commission on Labour in their report, with the addition of certain other categories and to decide in each case the most suitable manner of

conducting the enquiry. Government, however, considered that the method of enquiry should not merely consist in sending out questionnaires to Government agencies and Employers' and Workers' Associations, but should also include specific enquiries in individual concerns based on representative sampling. The above terms of reference were slightly modified at a subsequent date, as indicated later.

Preliminary Tour

The Committee, with the exception of one member, went on a preliminary tour to visit some of the important industrial centres in India with a view to getting first-hand information about labour problems in the various industries. They left Simla on the 14th February 1944 and after visiting Cawnpore, Dhanbad, Calcutta, Jamshedpur, Nagpur, Madras, Madura, Trivandrum, Mundakayam, Coonoor, Bangalore, Mysore, Bombay, Baroda, Ahmedabad and Lahore returned to their headquarters on the 15th April 1944. In this tour the Committee discussed the various labour problems with Provincial and State officials as also with representatives of employers and employees. Thereafter the Committee prepared the General Questionnaire (Appendix I), *Ad hoc* Questionnaires (Appendix II), and Supplementary Questionnaires (Appendix III).

Method of Enquiry

In spite of the comprehensive enquiries made by the Royal Commission on Labour and a few Committees appointed by the Provincial Governments, large lacunae have remained in regard to information on labour conditions in several industries in India. Broadly speaking, the method of direct enquiry on the spot has not been adopted on a sufficiently wide scale so as to cover the entire industrial structure. Moreover, certain industries, like cotton textiles and coal mining, have received greater attention than others, but even in regard to these, comprehensive information on an all-India basis has not been available. With a view to making up this deficiency and bringing the available information up to date, the Committee decided that *ad hoc* surveys should be carried out in various industries so as to secure a complete picture of labour conditions prevailing in each. The following industries were selected for the purpose:—

A. MINING: (1) Coal. (2) Manganese. (3) Gold. (4) Mica. (5) Iron Ore. (6) Salt.

B. PLANTATIONS: (7) Tea. (8) Coffee. (9) Rubber.

C. FACTORY INDUSTRIES: (10) Cotton. (11) Jute. (12) Silk. (13) Woollen. (14) Mineral Oil. (15) Dockyard. (16) Engineering and Minerals and Metals. (17) Cement. (18) Matches. (19) Paper. (20) Carpet Weaving. (21) Coir Matting. (22) Tanneries and Leather Goods Manufacture. (23) Potteries. (24) Printing Presses. (25) Glass. (26) Chemical and Pharmaceutical works. (27) Shellac. (28) Bidi-making, Cigar and Cigarettes. (29) Mica Splitting. (30) Sugar. (31) Cotton Ginning and Baling. (32) Rice Mills.

D. TRANSPORT: (33) Transport Services (Tramways and Buses). (34) Non-gazetted Railway Staff.

E. OTHER TYPES OF LABOUR: (35) Port Labour. (36) Municipal Labour. (37) Central P. W. D. (38) Rickshaw Pullers.

In dealing with the *ad hoc* survey work, several courses were open to the Committee:—(i) that the Committee, as a whole, might study each industry, (ii) that the surveys might be distributed region-wise and each Member put in charge of a region, and (iii) that each Member might be entrusted with a few surveys throughout India. With a view to speedy and efficient work, the third course was adopted. This departure from the usual procedure of the Committee as a whole dealing with the work was necessary in view of the immensity of the task and the necessity of maintaining an all-India perspective. Moreover, it was felt that this procedure would enable Members to make a specialised study of labour conditions in individual industries in different parts of the country. It was also felt that the peculiar problems of industrial labour had more on industry-wise than a region-wise dispersion and that the procedure would be helpful to any programme of future legislation which has to take into consideration the diversified conditions of each industry.

Division of Work

The *ad hoc* surveys relating to the industries selected were distributed among the Chairman and Members as follows:—

CHAIRMAN: Coal Mining; Plantations; Manganese Mining; Bidi-Making; Cigar and Cigarettes; Mineral Oil; Dockyards.

MR. S. R. DESHPANDE: Cotton; Jute; Silk; Woollen; Port Labour; Salt; Cement; Matches; Paper; Gold Mining; Municipal Labour.

DR. AHMAD MUKHTAR: Transport Services; Carpet Weaving; Coir Mats and Matting; Tanneries and Leather Goods Manufacture; Sugar; Potteries; Printing Presses; Non-gazetted Railway Services; Rickshaw Pullers.

MR. B. P. ADARKAR: Engineering and Minerals and Metals; Cotton Ginning and Baling; Rice Mills; Glass; Chemicals and Pharmaceutical Works; Shellac; Mica Mining and Splitting; Iron Ore; Central P. W. D.

The final decision for carrying out the *ad hoc* survey in Coal mines was arrived at by the Government of India rather late, so that it could not be carried out along with the *ad hoc* surveys in other industries. Government have now decided that Mr. S. R. Deshpande should conduct an *ad hoc* survey and a wage census in the coal mines in India and his report will be published separately in due course. As the Committee did not undertake any enquiry in coal mining they have not discussed labour conditions in coal mining in this report. However, incidental references have been made to conditions in coal mines wherever considered necessary. Apart from coal mining, *ad hoc* reports by the Committee on all other industries in the foregoing lists have been printed separately.

Ad Hoc and Supplementary Questionnaires

The main conception on which the *ad hoc* surveys have been based is that information should be collected on the spot by direct enquiry conducted with the help of the Committee's own staff and that this work

should, as far as possible, conform to the sampling methods widely adopted in such cases. Owing to great variations in the character of the different industries, however, there could not be complete uniformity in regard to the methods which had to be adopted to conduct the enquiries. Thus, while there were only a few centres and units to be covered in certain industries such as potteries, mineral oil, gold, etc., in other industries, such as textiles, engineering, transport services, plantations, tanneries, bidi-making, etc., a very large number of centres and units in different Provinces and States had to be covered. Moreover, some of the industries were of the modern large-scale type, wherein factory legislation applied more or less entirely, while others were indigenous handicrafts or small-scale industries, where factory legislation was either inapplicable or partially applicable. Moreover, information was not uniformly available in advance as regards the size, location and ownership of industrial units, such as is necessary before decisions for sampling are taken. Consequently, the technique of representative sampling had to be modified and supplemented so as to obtain whatever information of a reliable character was available. As far as possible, however, in all industries important centres were covered. In each of these centres units were chosen on a sample basis, but it was possible in a few centres to cover all units. The final lists of centres of survey and individual establishments were made out in the light of the impressions gathered during the course of the preliminary tour, and in consultation with local authorities. The guiding principle in the selection of centres for survey was to make the survey regionally representative so as to discover differences in the conditions of labour in the same industry in different parts of the country. The selection of individual concerns was generally based on considerations of (a) size, (b) ownership (private or limited), and (c) whether subject to statutory regulation or not. In this connection, it may be stated that the Committee were greatly handicapped in sampling the units owing to the lack of complete information regarding location and number of units in the selected industries. Unfortunately, there are no all-India employers' organisations in some of the organised industries, nor are the satistics maintained by the Central and Provincial Governments at all complete. Moreover, in certain unorganised industries, such as shellac, carpet-weaving, bidi-making, etc., owing to their very nature no such information could have been readily available in advance. In certain cases, therefore owing to these difficulties as well as those of transport and other exigencies, the sampling could not be fully adhered to. Nevertheless, the Committee have been anxious to gather in the maximum possible information in the limited time at their disposal, and with a view to this they have cast their net as wide as possible. The main instruments of the *ad hoc* survey were the Questionnaires. These were of two kinds:— (a) the main *ad hoc* survey questionnaire on points likely to be common to all the industries surveyed, and (b) supplementary and special questionnaires in respect of certain industries, such as plantations, mines, railways, rickshaw pullers, port labour, shellac, mica, etc. The main *ad hoc* questionnaire was accompanied by a tabular form for entering wage data and this was used wherever possible. In the case of certain surveys, however, such as salt, paper, cotton, woollen and jute textiles, dockyards, silk, cement and gold mining, it was possible to conduct a wage survey on

a sample basis. The chief method of collection of data was by personal investigation in industrial establishments, examination of records, and contact with labour in workers' homes and places of work. The information thus collected was supplemented and checked with replies to the questionnaires received. No oral evidence was, however, recorded by the Committee.

General Questionnaire

The Committee decided that in addition to *ad hoc* survey reports, it should present a main report giving a complete picture of labour conditions in India. With a view to collecting factual and statistical data and obtaining the views of Governments, Employers' and Workers' Associations and other institutions and persons interested in the matter, the Committee prepared a General Questionnaire dealing with Labour Legislation, Wages and Earnings, Employment, Working conditions, Housing, Migration, Indebtedness, Age and Mortality Statistics, Welfare Activities and Social Security Measures. The Questionnaire was issued to Provincial Governments and States and to about 500 individuals and associations. A list of those who have replied is given in Appendix IV.

Modification of Terms of Reference

The terms of reference given above were subsequently modified by the Government of India in July 1944, and the Committee were asked to confine themselves to *fact-finding*, as envisaged by the resolution of the Tripartite Labour Conference quoted earlier and not to attempt to follow up those parts of the General Questionnaire, such as, questions 7, 11, 12, 14, 19, 20, 28, 100-102, 106, 107, 110, and 111, the material on which could be left for the Planning Committee to deal with.

The Committee's main task thus has been that of *fact-finding*. It has been, however, somewhat difficult to determine the precise scope of the term "fact-finding". Apparently, Government intended that the Committee should conduct a full fledged enquiry into labour conditions throughout India. In doing so, the interpretation of the term cannot be so rigid and narrow as to exclude matters of vital importance to labour in particular and to the community in general. The Committee referred to the reports of some earlier fact-finding Committees such as the Fact-finding Committee (Handloom and Mills) and the Nind Committee (which was appointed in 1930 to investigate certain facts relevant to the economic and financial relations between British India and Indian States). From such a reference, it did not appear that those Committees had interpreted their task so narrowly. The dividing line between facts and opinions is not always clear, and logically many statements of facts may be regarded as expressioins of opinion. Moreover, once the facts are stated, conclusions are irresistible; and the Committee felt that in view of their special and privileged contacts, not only were they best fitted to draw these conclusions from facts presented by themselves but that they would be failing in their task if they did not do so. Any suggestion made by the Committee here or in the *ad hoc* reports may, therefore, be regarded as expressions of opinion only, as they fully realise that it was not their task to make any specific recommendations as such.

Staff

Mr. B. P. Adarkar worked as Secretary in addition to his duties as a Member of the Committee till the 1st May, 1944. After that Mr. P. N. Sharma, Superintendent of the Committee was required to do the work of Secretary in addition to his duties as Superintendent. Mr. Teja Singh Sahni succeeded Mr. P. N. Sharma as Secretary to the Committee on 18th October, 1944. Mr. N. K. Bhojwani was appointed as Statistician to the Committee on 20th February, 1944, and remained with the Committee in this capacity till the end of July, 1945.

For the purpose of conducting enquiries, a sufficiently large field staff, consisting of Supervisors and Investigators, was appointed. Before the commencement of field work, all the Supervisors (with the exception of those working under the Labour Commissioner, Bengal) were called to the Committee's headquarters at Simla and given detailed instructions on the technique and scope of the enquiries to be conducted by them, the manner in which they were to submit their data and the centres and units which they were to investigate. In addition, both Supervisors and Investigators were provided with written instructions regarding the use of questionnaires, sampling of concerns (where this could not be done in advance), filling of the wage forms, etc. In particular, they were asked not only to collect information on the spot but also to draw upon every other possible source of information. In doing so, they were required to distribute copies of the questionnaires in the centres assigned to them not only amongst the sampled units but also amongst Employers' and Workers' associations in the industry and such other associations and individuals as were likely to be interested in the subject. They were also asked to get into touch with the officials of Central and Provincial Governments connected with labour and obtain such facilities as might be necessary in connection with their work. As far as field work in Bengal was concerned, it was done by the staff of the Committee under the guidance and supervision of the Labour Commissioner, Bengal, and his subordinate officers. Members, however, paid visits to selected centres and units in Bengal to obtain first-hand knowledge of local labour conditions.

Geographical Scope of Enquiry

The Committee's survey covered all Provinces with the exception of the North-West Frontier Province where none of the industries selected for survey was sufficiently important. It extended to many of the Indian States also, such as Kashmir, Patiala, Gwalior, Baroda, Mysore, Sandur, Travancore, Cochin, Bundi, Indore and some of the States of the Eastern States Agency. No survey was undertaken in the Hyderabad State as that State preferred to appoint its own Labour Investigation Committee, with terms of reference indentical to those of this Committee, for enquiry into local labour conditions. It is now undertood that the Committee has been dissolved and that the work is being carried on departmentally on the same lines.

Arrangement of the Report

It may be stated here that the arrangement of this Report is somewhat different from that adopted in similar reports dealing with labour, such as the Reports of the Royal Commission on Labour and the Bihar Enquiry Committee. As a major part of the factual material was already incorporated in the *ad hoc* survey reports, the Committee felt that in this Main Report, they should present the factual material and their views thereon in a general way. In doing so, they have endeavoured to take a cross-section of the various industries according to different subjects and topics. Reference to the Reports of the Royal Commission on Labour and the Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee will show that their task was somewhat complicated by the necessity of having to discuss the general aspects, and, side by side, to present the factual material for different industries. On the other hand, our task has been made easier by the fact that the *ad hoc* survey reports have already provided the factual materials in regard to various major and minor industries, although we have drawn liberally upon those reports.

Recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour in India

The Government of India stopped the publication of the Annual Report showing action taken by the Central and Provincial Governments in respect of the recommendations made by the Royal Commission on Labour after the year 1938. Since, in any future planning of labour legislation it will be of great importance to review the action remaining to be taken on the major recommendations of the Commission, the Committee decided to examine the position of such recommendations afresh. The result of this enquiry is given in Appendix V.

The views embodied in this Report are those of the Labour Investigation Committee and the Government of India accept no responsibility on the opinions expressed therein.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

I—*The Economic Background.*

Great and cataclysmic changes have taken place in the political and economic spheres throughout the world during the *inter-bellum* period (1918-1939), and India has shared in full the joys and sorrows of the peoples of the world during all these years. It has been a vast array of events, the boom and the crisis following the end of World War I, the subsequent recovery and boom up to 1929, the Great Depression of 1930-34, the Recovery, 1935-39, and the World War II, 1939-45. The Report of the Royal Commission, which was submitted in 1931, marks an outstanding event in the history of Indian labour, during this period. Since then, considerable progress has been made by labour in many fields: but a connected account of that progress has not been available so far. The emergence of India as a major industrial Power amongst the nations of the world has led to an increasing recognition of its status both in industry and in labour, and the International Labour Organization, which has done great and valuable work for labour problems, has in many ways helped in the amelioration of labour conditions, while India has taken steps to implement some of the Conventions and Recommendations of that organisation. Not only as an industrial Power, but as a country providing employment to something like 180 million workpeople, consisting of males and females, by means of agriculture, industries, mining, transport services, banking, commercial services, fishing, navigation and supporting a total population steadily nearing the 400 million mark, India has an important place in the economic development of the world. The enormous growth of population, which has taken place during the last two to three decades, has created problems of its own. In particular, this has necessitated the creation of increased numbers of employment and has, in consequence, rendered imperative a rapid development of the industrial structure. Both World Wars I and II have contributed substantially to India's industrial development and the fiscal and industrial policy of the Government of India has also partly supported it.

When the Royal Commission on Labour reported, the working class of India was neither sufficiently organised nor properly stabilised. In recent years, however, there has been a greater concentration of the working-class population in industrial areas and this has led to the rise of an industrial proletariate in most cities, which is prepared to stick to the town to a greater extent than before, to fight for its legitimate rights, and to seek its livelihood in urban rather than rural areas. The main source for the growing industries of the cities has been the village: but during the last few decades, there has been such a steady and tremendous growth of population everywhere that the pressure on the soil

has been increasing. Owing to this situation, the migrant industrial worker has been finding it increasingly difficult to obtain his livelihood in the village. A steady increase in the ranks of the landless labourers, moreover, has compelled many to remain and settle in the town and to regard it as their home. Even today, no doubt, large masses of labour do migrate to the urban areas but it is an unmistakable fact that the labour force in principal industrial cities like Bombay, Calcutta, Cawnpore, etc., is getting more and more stabilised. This stabilisation has been a matter of necessity rather than of choice. The village, the joint family, the caste, and several other institutions of old, which were the bulwark of social security for the toiling masses are, unfortunately, steadily crumbling down. At the same time, the urban areas have not yet begun to provide for them that degree of social security which may be considered as necessary, and, as a consequence, the responsibilities of the State and employers in safeguarding the economic and social interests of the working-class population have to that extent increased. How far these responsibilities are being discharged by the State and employers will be seen from the contents of this Report, as well as the *Ad Hoc* Survey Reports on various industries, submitted by this Committee. It will be seen that the rise of an industrial proletariate has led to the growth of trade unionism in India, and this in some places at least has helped the worker to obtain somewhat better wages and working conditions.

The part played by the State in ameliorating the conditions of workers in industrial and semi-industrial occupations continues to be mainly by way of legislation. Since 1931, important measures, some of which will be discussed in subsequent pages, have been enacted by the Central Legislature, including a consolidated Factories Act (1934), the Payment of wages Act (1936), the Employment of Children Act (1938), and several others. Likewise, numerous Acts, including particularly the Bombay Industrial Disputes Act, the various Provincial Maternity Benefit Acts etc., have been passed by Provincial Legislatures. In some of the Indian States, similar measures have been adopted for regulation of labour conditions in factories, provision of compensation for employment injury, maternity benefit, etc. However, it is a regrettable fact that the enforcement of labour laws has not been up to the mark, and although much has been done by way of putting the workers' rights on the statute-book, on the whole the worker has not been able to obtain a fair deal. His illiteracy, ignorance and helplessness have been largely availed of by some employers who have been able to break or disregard the law with impunity. Very often, the worker himself has been a party to this and, even where he has been aware of his rights, he has connived at the breaches of law for the simple reason that security of employment is more important to him than the assertion of his rights. However, some large employers, whose number is fortunately on the increase have shown themselves quite alive to the interests of labour and have regarded the maintenance of a contented labour force as conducive not only to the welfare of the worker but also to his efficiency and productivity. While they have achieved this harmonisation between the workers' interests and their own, a large majority of employers, especially small employers, have regarded profit-making on catch-as-catch-can principles as the guiding motive of their relations with labour. The *Ad Hoc* Survey Reports

of this Committee amply bear out the truth of the above satements, and, in particular they show that, so far as labour is concerned, there are patches here and patches there of satisfactory conditions, but that there is much leeway to be made in the field of labour legislation and its enforcement, as well as in the direct amelioration of labour conditions in the future. If "maximum good of the maximum number" is to be achieved, the maximum number in India, as anywhere else, consists of the labouring classes, and, therefore, if the common man is to get his due, a frontal attack on the problems at issue will have to be made, with the State in the vanguard of such a movement. Unfortunately, it is to be feared that the State in India, all these years, has done very little besides merely passing laws and seeking to enforce them through various agencies. Except in recent years, it has stood aloof from any active work in the field of labour, mainly on the ground of lack of funds and also on the doubtful theory that the State cannot *afford* to spend on any particular class or section of the population.

World War II has brought about tremendous changes in the structure of Indian industry and labour and, with the cessation of hostilities, problems of great difficulty have arisen. Owing to the enormous expenditure incurred by the Government of India on account of its own "war effort", and on account of purchases of supplies on behalf of the United Nations, there has taken place a hot-house growth of employment in the country. Millions had been enlisted in the Defence Forces and Auxiliary Services, and also in large-scale and cottage industries so as to support an unprecedented effort for the prosecution of war. The major problem which faces the country today on the labour front is the problem of demobilisation and re-employment. The transition from war to peace has brought into existence numerous difficulties which will have to be faced by Government and the people and tackled by means of concentrated action. At a moment like this, the numerous issues raised in this Report as also in the Ad Hoc Survey Reports pale into insignificance as compared to the spectre of mass Unemployment which looms ahead. Moreover, during war time, the worker in some industries at least, as well as in the Defence Forces, has been able to obtain higher wages, concurrently with a rising cost of living, although, on the whole, the real wages of a large majority of workers have fallen or shown a tendency to remain on the low side. Next to the problem of employment, therefore, arises that of an assured minimum wage and an assured standard of life. To some extent, no doubt, there is a conflict, at least in the short period, between greater employment and higher wages which cannot be easily resolved. However, there is no doubt that the average worker would prefer even a comparatively low standard of life to the absolute destitution caused by unemployment. Apart from the factors of employment and wages, during the war period, there have been numerous relaxations of labour laws, so as to facilitate increased production even at the cost of some inconvenience and discomfort to the working-class population. It is to be hoped that all such war-time relaxations or restrictions, adverse to the interests of labour, will be removed in the immediate future.

The experience of war has been valuable in one respect, viz., in that it has been realised by those who shape the policies and economic destinies,

of the country that if War could harness the human and material resources of the nation to the fullest extent, there is no reason why the same cannot be achieved by Peace, inasmuch as the fruits of War are for destruction and demolition while those of Peace are enduring and beneficial. This realisation is a great asset, so far as the economic regeneration of India is concerned, and the various plans of Post-war Development which are on the anvil, hold a great promise for the economic betterment not only of the people as a whole but also of the working classes. In this programme of economic development lies the salvation of the working classes who can find therein both security of employment and the promise of a higher standard of life. A fundamental aspect of post-war planning, however, is the position which it is intended to assign to the working-class population. If the idea is to use them as mere hewers of wood and drawers of water, it would be strongly resented. If, on the other hand, post-war planning is meant, not to make the rich richer and the poor poorer, but to raise the standards of life of the lowliest, and if, moreover, there is an assurance of decent working conditions and of economic security, such planning will be welcomed by the masses. It is in this large perspective that we have to view post-war planning as an instrument of social welfare and economic regeneration.

II—*A Bird's-eye View of Industries.*

We shall now briefly describe the nature and extent of employment in the various industries, many of which are covered by our surveys. This will enable us to see what a great expansion has taken place in different directions since the Royal Commission on Labour reported, both owing to the inherent momentum of industrialization and the impetus provided by the war. For fuller details, it may be advantageous to refer to the Ad Hoc Reports of the Committee; here we shall take only a bird's-eye view of the industrial siuation.

The most important single group of industries is, of course, the *Factory Industries Group*. In this group, broadly speaking, there are two sub-groups, viz., regulated factories and unregulated factories. So far as regulated factories registered under the Factories Act are concerned, the total employment in 1943 in British India was 2,436,312 persons. Figures for unregulated factories, however, are not readily available, but the Committee made their own estimates for certain typical unregulated factory industries, such as mica manufacture, shellac, bidi making, glass, etc. From this, it appears that employment in unregulated factories, whether using mechanical power or not, is very considerable. Thus, it has been estimated that in bidi making alone, something like 500,000 workers are employed at present; in mica manufacturing, for India as a whole, the estimated total is 1,40,000; in shellac, in British India, 25,000 to 30,000; glass bangle making 10,000 in British India and 2,000 in State; carpet weaving, 7,035[1]; coir mats and matting, 70,000.[2] It will thus appear that in the unregulated factories group, total employment may easily be in the neighbourhood of 1,000,000. There is

[1]Four centres only, viz., Mirzapur, Gwalior, Amritsar and Srinagar.

[2]In Cochin and Travancore, besides 30,000 families in Travancore.

reason to believe that this figure may be exceeded, and that this is only a moderate estimate. Next to the Factories Group, in order of importance, come the *Plantations,* comprising mostly tea, coffee and rubber estates. According to the Committee's estimate, something like 11,65,000 labourers are employed in plantations, in India as a whole, while if the managerial, supervisory and clerical staff is also included, the figure may be much higher. Next to plantations, comes the *Communications Group,* of which the railways are the main item. In 1944, the Indian railways with a total route mileage of about 40,000 employed a labour force aggregating 8,89,056. Apart from this, docks employed about 1,00,000 persons directly and quite a large number through contractors, and tramways and buses about 100,000. Next to the Communications Group, comes the *Mining Group.* In 1943, the total labour force employed in mining amounted to 3,49,361 workers in British India alone.

Apart from this, there is a large *Miscellaneous Group,* comprising labour in Central P.W.D. and the Provincial P.W.D., private building labour, municipal labour, rickshaw pullers, etc. It has been impossible to get complete figures for this Miscellaneous Group which has expanded quite considerably during the war period. In this group, building and construction work appears to be the predominant section. According to the Committee's estimate, something like 15,00,000 persons (including both departmental and contract labour) were employed in the central Public Works Department alone. The Municipalities of Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Lahore, Nagpur, Cawnpore and Karachi, where investigations were conducted by the Committee, employed a total of about 60,000 persons directly. Most of these are the largest municipalities in India, but if we include labour in other municipalities, the figure may easily exceed one lakh. As regards rickshaw pullers, in the few centres investigated by the Committee, viz., Calcutta, Madras and Simla, the total number employed in 1944 was 40,882. Consolidated figures for different industries surveyed by the Committee have been reproduced in Appendix VI. Unfortunately, as it would be clear from the notes in the Appendix, it has been a difficult task to furnish strictly comparable figures. In some cases, figures were available for British India alone; in others for India as a whole; in some, for 1943 or 1944 only; in others, figures for contract labour were mixed up with labour directly employed. The Appendix, therefore, must be read with some caution. The best course would be to consider each industry separately in the light of information given in the notes. Let us now describe the employment position in these different Groups in a more detailed manner.

III—*Factories.*

Labour employed in factories covered by the Indian Factories Act amounts to about 2.5 millions at present. From its inception in the middle of the last century, the factory industry in India has had a steady development. The number of factories in 1892, when factory statistics were first compiled, was 656 and the number of operatives working therein was only 3,16,816. By 1939, the number of factories and workers had increased to 10,466 and 17,51,137 respectively; while in 1944, the corresponding figures were 13,209 and 24,36,312 respectively. To some

extent, the definition of a "factory" under the Factories Acts of 1881, 1891, 1922 and 1934 has no doubt made some difference to the figures. Yet the enormous expansion in employment that has taken place is largely due to the steady growth of industrialism in the country. In the years immediately preceding World War II, the Indian industry as a whole and the Factories Group in particular had to face considerable competition from other countries. The outbreak of war, however, created an enormous additional demand for Indian goods, and, as the war progressed, and particularly after Japan's entry, India became the "Arsenal of the East" and her economy was geared to an unprecedented pitch of industrial activity. The following table indicates the growth of employment in registered factories between 1892 and 1943:—

TABLE 1.

Number of Factories and Workers Employed (1892—1943).

Year	No. of Factories	Workers Employed			
		Men	Women	Children	Total
1892	656	2,54 336	43,592	18,888	3,16,816
1912	2,710	6,85,822	1,30,025	53,796	8,69,643
1923	5,985	11,13,508	2,21,045	74,620	14,09,173
1933	8,452	11,67,284	2,16,837	19,091	14,03,212
1939	10,466	14,98,218	2,43,516	9,403	17,51,137
1943	13,209	1?,58,?.9	2,65,509	12,484	24,36,312

Figures in the above table give only the average daily employment in registered factories. As is known, however, factory employment in India still suffers from a considerable extent of absenteeism. The result is that the number of workers attached to factories is appreciably higher than the average daily employment. It is not possible to calculate the total amount of substitute labour employed in the place of absentee workers, but assuming an average absenteeism of 10%, the daily total on the rolls could be worked out to about 2.7 million workers for the year 1943. Moreover, it must be remembered that labour employed by contractors has not been taken into account for purposes of employment returns, and in a number of industries including engineering, C.P.W.D., dockyards, cement, paper, cotton textiles (Ahmedabad only), and unregulated and seasonal industries, contract labour predominates. Finally, the returns submitted to the Factories Departments by employers omit illegal employment of children, which, in certain industries, is quite considerable, as our *ad hoc* surveys indicate.

Women and Children.—Broadly speaking, the number of women factory workers has been rising very gradually, but, as a percentage of total factory labour, female labour has been showing a steady decline. Thus, while in 1913, women constituted 15% of the total factory labour, by 1943 the percentage had gone down to 11. As regards children, as may be seen from the above table, from the peak of 74,620 (5.3% of total employment) in 1923, the figure came down to 9,403 (0.5%) in 1939, but has shown a slight rise during war time. As stated already, however, the employment returns for child labour are not entirely reliable,

although the general conclusion to be drawn from the figures is that the employment of children (i.e., between 12 and 15 years, as well as below 12) has gone down considerably since the beginning of the century. The following table shows the proportion of workers, classified according to sex and age (broad categories only), in perennial and seasonal factories in the year 1943:—

TABLE 2.

Proportion of Workers Employed in Perennial and Seasonal Factories in 1943.

Category of workers.	Workers in Perennial Factories.		Workers in Seasonal Factories.		
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Total
Adults					
Men	1,926,420	89.6	207,202	71.8	2,133,622
Women	185,478	8.6	76,666	26.6	262,144
Adolescents					
Males	22,354	1.1	2,343	0.8	24,697
Females	2,744	0.1	621	0.2	3,365
Children					
Boys	9,495	0.5	1,079	0.4	10,574
Girls	1,433	0.1	477	0.2	1,910
Total	2,147,924	100.0	288,388	100.0	2,436,312

It will be seen from the above table that adult women constitute a much larger proportion of workers in seasonal factories than in perennial factories, being 26.6 per cent of total employment in the former and 8.6 per cent in the latter.

Perennial Factories.—The average daily employment in all *perennial* factories in 1943 was 2,137,943. This represents an increase of 677,659 over the corresponding figure for 1939, viz., 1,460,284, i.e., a rise of 46.4% during the course of only four years! The following table will show both the predominance of certain groups of perennial factory industries as well as the rapid growth in employment which has taken place in different sections in recent years. It will be seen that since 1929, employment in perennial factories has nearly doubled.

TABLE 3.

Chief Classes of Perennial Factory Workers.

Year.	Textile Mills.			Engineering, Minerals and Metals.			Others.			Total.	
	No. of factories.	Workers.		No. of Factories.	Workers.		No. of Factories.	Workers.		Factories.	Workers.
		Number.	Percentage of total.		Number.	Percentage of total.		Number.	Percentage of total.		
1929	458	696,000	59.7%	871	351,000	27.0%	1,122	155,000	13.3%	2,451.	1,166,000
1936	657	737,727	54.9%	1,067	253,494	19.0%	3,857	352,499	26.1%	5,581	1,343,720
1939	1,311	819,404	56.1%	1,375	302,708	20.7%	4,257	338,172	23.2%	6,943	1,460,284
1943	1,457	1,004,546	47.0%	2,321	610,108	28.5%	5,755	523,289	24.5%	9,533	2,137,943

Labour employed in textile mills forms the largest single group of perennial workers. In 1943, 1,004,546 workers were employed in these factories. It may be pointed out, however, that though total employment in textile factories has been rising, the percentage share of textile labour in the total employment in perennial factories has been steadily going down in recent years. Thus, it was 59.7% in 1929, and it fell to 47% in 1943. In the textile groups, in 1943, cotton spinning and weaving mills accounted for 63%, jute mills for 32%, and other mills for 5% only. Labour in this group is easily the best organised part of India's industrial population, and this is obviously due to employment in these factories being more stable and permanent. Engineering, minerals and metals form the second largest group at present, although as will be clear from Table 3, the expansion has mainly been a war-time development, and actually employment immediately before the World War II was less than in 1929. The main constituents of this group are general engineering, iron and steel, ship-building, ordnance factories and railway workshops. The following table gives figures for employment in these five important constituents:—

TABLE 4.

Employment in the Engineering Group of Factories.

Factories	1939	1943	Percentage increase since 1939.
All	302,708	610,108	101.5
Railway Workshops	104,058	141,352	35.8
Ordnance	30,709	131,076	331.9
General Engineering	50,346	120,227	138.8
Iron and Steel	40,790	60,944	49.4
Ship-building	18,534	35,087	89.3

The third group of perennial factories, comprising food, drink and tobacco factories, chemicals and dyes factories, paper mills, printing presses, wood, stone and glass works, and leather works, has shown a considerable increase in recent years. Employment in this section has risen from 155,000 in 1929, to 523,289 in 1943 and the percentage share has risen from 13.3% to 24.5%.

Seasonal Factories.—Seasonal factories are factories which, on the average, work for not more than 180 days in a year. Such factories are comparatively small, are distributed over wide areas, and recruit labour from amongst agriculturists, which is mainly unskilled, low-paid and unorganised; in such factories there is a large proportion of women than in perennial factories, as will be seen from the previous table. These factories comprise two groups: (i) one consisting of cotton ginning and pressing, jute pressing, indigo, shellac, tea, coffee, and rubber factories, etc., and (ii) the other consisting of some rice mills, oil mills, sugar mills, tobacco factories, flour mills and others. The first group is predominantly seasonal, while the latter is partially seasonal. The following table brings up to date similar data provided by the Royal Commis-

sion[1] on Labour. It must be noted, however, that there is slight difference between classifications adopted by the Royal Commission and that adopted in the statistics under the Factories Act, 1934. An effort has been made to give corresponding figures as far as possible:—

TABLE 5.

Employment in Seasonal Factories.

	1929 (a)	1939	1943
A. *Predominantly Seasonal.*			
Cotton gins and presses .	136,666	123,879	117,311
Tea factories .. .	63,064	67,303	72,950
Jute presses	37,300	13,089	8,433
Others (i.e., indigo, lac, coffee, rubber, and others).	11,368 (b)	6,410	5,937
Total ..	248,398	210,681	204,631
B. *Partially Seasonal.*			
Rice mills	36,529	2,037	2,344
Oil mills	10,258	(c)	(c)
Sugar mills	14,726	74,872	88,364
Tobacco	9,922	138	592
Others (i.e., flour mills, tile and brick factories, ice and aerated water and others), (d).	21,738	1,853	2,102
Total ...	93,173	73,900	93,402

(a) Figures for 1929 are from *Royal Commission's Report*, p. 75 (and exclude Burma).

(b) This includes those engaged in ground-nut decortication.

(c) In recent years 'Oil Mills' have been perennial and there appear to be no 'Seasonal Oil Mills'.

(d) 'Flour Mills' and 'tiles and bricks' factories are now perennial.

It appears from the foregoing table that the employment in seasonal factories, governed by the Factories Act, has remained more or less steady, as between 1929 and 1943. This group does not appear to have been influenced much by war-time conditions. This is probably due to the fact that during the war-period, these factories were considerably dislocated owing to shortages of coal and other raw materials caused by insufficient transport facilities.

Unregulated Factories.—Unregulated factories are those which are not subject to any legal regulation or subject only to nominal regulation in respect of one or two matters. Thus, these factories fall outside the scope of the Factories Act, 1934, either because they employ less than

[1]Report, p. 75.

20 workers or because, even if covered by Section 5 they employ less than 10 workers. However, in this group, in some industries, such as shellac, mica splitting, carpet-weaving, *bidi* making, etc., the Employment of Children (Amendment) Act, 1939, applies, prohibiting employment of children below 12 years. Likewise, in the Central Provinces and Berar, under the Unregulated Factories Act, 1937, there is regulation of some aspects of factory conditions only, and this Act applies to any place wherein 50 or more workers are employed, and wherein *bidi* making, shellac manufacture or leather tanning is carried on. Broadly speaking, however, in the unregulated factories group, we have most of the so-called "cottage" industries in which power may or may not be used. The group includes mainly the following industries: mica manufacture, wool cleaning, shellac, *bidi* making, carpet weaving, indigenous tanneries, coir-matting, handloom weaving, glass bangle manufacture, etc. No precise figures for employment have been available for many of these industries. The Committee, however, conducted *ad hoc* surveys in mica manufacturing, glass, coir-matting, carpet weaving, shellac, and *bidi* making. In mica manufacturing, total employment in the three regions of Bihar, Madras, and Rajputana in 1943 is estimated by them at 150,000, of which Bihar accounted for 135,000. Madras 10,000 and Rajputana 5,000. In 1939, however, it was probably in the neighbourhood of 124,000 (Bihar 118,000, Madras 6,000 and Rajputana *nil*). It will be seen that employment showed an increase of about 13% between the two years. In the glass bangle making industry, it is estimated by the Committee that total employment for British India is in the neighbourhood of 10,000, while in the Indian States, it was probably about 2,000. In coir-matting, Cochin employes about 40,000 persons while Travancore employs 30,000 workers directly and in addition about 30,000 families work at home. As regards carpet weaving, in three leading centres, viz., Mirzapur, Amritsar and Srinagar the total employment was found to be in the neighbourhood of 1,657. Including all other centres, employment in this industry cannot be more than 10,000. In the indigenous shellac industry, it is estimated that something like 25,000 to 30,000 workers are employed in various processes. As regards *bidi* making, it is estimated that in all about 500,000 workers are employed.

Provincial Distribution of Factory Workers.—The distribution by Provinces of factories and factory workers for the years 1939 and 1943 is given in the table below.

TABLE 6.

Distribution by Provinces of Factories and Factory Workers.

Province.	1939		1943	
	Number of Factories	Workers	Number of Factories	Workers
Bombay	3,120	466,040	3,914	711,525
Bengal	1,725	571,539	1,939	695,043
Madras	1,811	197,266	2,566	262,347
United Provinces	546	159,738	856	254,839
Punjab	800	78,302	1,110	143,166
Bihar	328	95,988	399	127,929
C.P. & Berar	740	64,494	822	84,696

TABLE 6 *contd.*

	Number of Factories	Workers	Number of Factories	Workers
Assam	773	52,003	800	58,023
Sind	324	24,995	442	34,230
Delhi	111	17,400	167	28,191
Ajmer-Merwara	36	13,330	32	17,554
Orissa	88	5,371	98	6,957
N. W. F. P.	36	1,268	34	5,029
Baluchistan	15	2,023	14	3,743
Bangalore & Coorg.	13	1,380	16	3,040
Total	10,466	1,751,137	13,209	2,436,312

Figures are given for each Province or area according to the order of importance, and include, of course, figures for both perennial and seasonal factories, governed by the Factories Act, 1934. It will be seen that Bombay, Bengal and Madras are the principal industrialised Provinces while U.P., Punjab, Bihar, C.P. & Berar and others follow in due order. It will also be noted that whereas Bombay had smaller number of factories and workers than Bengal in 1936 (Bombay: 1,611 factories and 391,771 workers; Bengal: 1,667 factories and 531,235 workers), there is an unmistakable tendency for Bombay to out-rival Bengal in recent years in regard to both factories and workers. Likewise, the Punjab appears to have made greater progress than Bihar in recent years.

IV—*Plantations.*

The plantation industries are the second largest employers of labour in India, and comprise the three main industries, viz., tea, coffee, and rubber. Apart from this, India also grows cardamon and cinchona. The figures of average daily employment for the three important groups of plantations, tea, coffee and rubber, are given below:—

TABLE 7.

Workers on Plantations (Tea, Coffee and Rubber) in all India.

Year	Number of Workers.
1911	741,691
1921	1,003,456
1935	1,039,637
1939	1,046,754
1942	1,088,348*

The estimated figure for the year 1944 for tea, coffee and rubber is in the neighbourhood of 11½ lakhs. These figures mainly refer to the daily averages, but plantations are seasonal industries and employment fluctuates according to the season, while there is also a considerable extent of absenteeism and migration. As stated in the I.L.O. publication *Industrial Labour in India*, (p. 33), "the actual numbers of workers are much larger than those indicated by the daily averages".

*As far as workers on coffee plantations are concerned, figures are for 1943.

Tea.—Tea gardens account for the largest number of plantation workers in the plantation group. Thus, in 1942, the total employment on tea gardens was 926,461 persons. This figure has been exceeded only once, viz., in 1919, which showed a total employment of 973,358 persons. The following table shows the position of employment in tea plantations in recent years:—

TABLE 8.

Workers in Tea Plantations in All-India.

Year	Number of workers.
1924	811,540
1929	930,472
1932	859,713
1935	899,039
1939	925,237
1942	926,461
1944	1,003,840 (Est.)

Coffee.—Next to tea, coffee plantations employ the largest number of workers, although it appears that total employment here, as in the case of tea, also shows some stagnation. Thus, the number of workers employed was 82,000 in 1903, 102,903 in 1935-36, and 110,760 in 1944. The state of employment in coffee plantations can be seen from the table below:—

TABLE 9.

Workers in Coffee Plantations in All-India.

Year	Number of workers.
1903	82,000
1923-24	74,088
1928-29	94,865
1931-32	96,706
1932-33	101,174
1935-36	102,903
1939	98,570
1943	115,378
1944	110,760 (Est.)

Rubber.—Rubber plantations come next in importance. Here again, the figures for employment show considerable fluctuations, as may be seen from the table below:—

TABLE 10.

Workers on Rubber Plantations in All-India.

Year	Number of workers.
1926	48,383
1928	58,292
1933	14,128
1935	37,695
1939	32,947
1942	46,887
1944	50,400 Est.)

Certain Features of Plantation Industries.—Employment in the plantation industry is a highly fluctuating affair, depending upon the vagaries of internal and international demand. It is a well-known fact that in regard to the products of these industries, there have been world-wide Restriction Schemes in operation in the past. If these schemes and international agreements in pursuance thereof had not been in operation, probably employment in plantations would have been subject to still greater fluctuations. An important problem of the post-war period, therefore, is stabilization of employment in the plantations, especially in view of the fact that labour is drawn from distant sources. The second important feature of the industry is the large proportion of women and children employed therein. This is mainly due to the fact that recruitment is on a family basis (except in the case of rubber), and the work is of an agricultural nature. In tea plantations, about 45% of the workers are women, while in coffee and rubber, the percentage is about 40 and 25 respectively. In the case of tea, children form about 15% of the total number of workers in Assam, 20% in Bengal and about 10% in South India. In the case of coffee and rubber, their proportion is 10 and 14 respectively for India as a whole.

Provincial Distribution.—The tea plantations are principally located in Assam and Bengal in the North, though a few estates are to be found in the Punjab, the U.P. and Bihar. In the South, tea gardens are to be found in Madras and Travancore as well. The North Eastern areas, however, are more important, as will be seen from the table below:—

TABLE 11.

Distribution by Province or State of Tea Garden Workers (1935 *and* 1942).

Province or State	1935	1942
Assam	519,621	5 1,067
Bengal	205,428	221,251
Madras	69,709	68,373
Punjab	10,710	11,098
United Provinces	3,496	3,836
Bihar	2,593	3,006
Coorg	349	230
British India	811,906	829,461
Travancore	73,112	79,941
Other States	14,021	17,059
Indian States	87,133	97,000
Grand Total—India	899,039	924,461

Nearly 3|5ths of the total number of workers employed are to be found in Assam, 1|5th in Bengal, and 1|5th in all other areas. In Assam, the two main planting areas are the Assam Valley and Surma Valley, while in Bengal, the tea estates are mainly situated in Darjeeling, the Terai and the Dooars.

The coffee plantations are located mainly in the Madras Province and Coorg in the British India and in the Indian States of Mysore, Cochin and Travancore. In 1943, the number of workers was 38,584 in the Madras Province, 13,700 in Coorg, 60,620 in Mysore, 881 in Travancore and 1,549 in Cochin.

As regards rubber plantations, these are situated in the Madras Province and Coorg and in the States of Travancore, Cochin and Mysore. In 1942, there were 6,319 workers in the Madras Province, 1,443 in Coorg, 31,353 in Travancore, 7,590 in Cochin and 182 in Mysore. This shows that the largest number of workers was employed in Travancore.

The following table gives the total labour population living on the Assam tea estates in certain years:—

TABLE 12.

Labour population living on Assam tea gardens, 1939-44.

(Mean annual strength).

Year	Adult	Children.	Total.
1938-39	605,522	556,331	1,161,853
1939-40	606,128	567,836	1,173,964
1940-41	602,104	567,401	1,169,505
1941-42	589,027	566,115	1,155,142
1942-43	591,510	573,779	1,165,289
1943-44	593,665	572,351	1,166,016

V—*Communications.*

We now come to the third largest group among the employers of India's industrial labour. This group comprises mainly Railways, Docks, Trams and Buses, the Mercantile Marine, and Inland Water Transport. We conducted *ad hoc* surveys of labour conditions only in the first three of these.

Railways employ a major part of the Indian transport labour. According to the Census figures for 1931, 6,36,311, out of a total of 2,341,406 gainfully employed in transport industries, were railway employees. Employment in railways increased gradually till 1939 when the figure for total employment was 699,153. The war put a heavy strain on India's transport system and the permanent staff of the railways was strengthened by a large number of temporary hands. This enabled the Railway Administrations in India to put the available rolling stock to the maximum possible use. The result was that although the total route mileage decreased from 41,155 in 1939 to 40,512 in 1944, employment went up from 699,153 in 1939 to 889,056 in 1944, showing an increase of 21.4%. The process of nationalisation of railways has been going on rapidly and in 1944 State-owned and State-managed railways employed 813,277 persons out of an all-India total of 889,056. In addition to departmental labour, a large number of workers are employed by contractors. Figures for contract labour were given only by the

G.I.P., the B.N., the O.T. and Martin's Light Railways. They employed 19,676 workers in 1944. The following table gives the average daily employment in Indian Railways in specified years:—

TABLE 13.

Employment in Railways.

Year (ending March 1931).	Indians.	Europeans.	Anglo-Indians.	Total.
1936	695,722	3,129	13,423	712,364
1937	694,343	3,121	13,416	710,880
1938	675,088	2,692	12,843	690,623
1939	683,208	2,505	13,440	699,153
1940	693,590	2,333	13,099	709,022
1941	712,717	2,143	13,239	728,099
1942	743,528	1,918	12,260	757,706
1943	811,942	1,833	12,271	826,046
1944	875,034	1,761	12,261	889,056

The principal Port Trusts in India, viz., those of Bombay, Calcutta, Karachi, Madras and Cochin, employ about 71,000 workers as shown in the table below. Of the 17,600 workers shown against Cochin, about 14,500 were employed on military construction work:—

TABLE 14.

Port Trust Labour in Principal Ports in 1944.

Bombay	26,015
Calcutta	18,000
Cochin	17,600
Karachi	6,150
Madras	3,270
Total	71,035

The principal towns having tramways are Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi and Delhi. Total employment in tramways in all these places amounted in 1944 to about 15,000. Of these nearly half (7,373) were employed in Calcutta alone. No statistical data are available as to total employment in buses in India but we estimate that about 90,000 workers are employed in this section of transport services.

VI.—*Mines.*

The fourth and next important group of industrial workers in India consists of those employed in mines. While the Indian Mines Act defines a mine as any excavation for the purpose of searching for or obtaining minerals, Notification No. M-1051 of 1st October 1935, exempts prospecting pits of 20 feet in depth (50 feet in case of an excavation for coal) and employing not more than 20 persons from its provisions. The average daily number of workers employed in all registered mines during 1943 was 349,361, of whom 79.3% were men and 20.7% women. It has not been possible to get an accurate idea of the number of person employed in prospecting pits, but a figure of 10 per cent of the total employment in mines proper should not be wide of the mark. Allowance has also to be made for the relatively high absenteeism among miners.

During the last 45 years for which we have statistics, the mining industries have had a chequered career. Till 1914 their development was steady; the years of the first world war accelerated the pace, but the momentum gained in those years was soon exhausted. The depression beginning in 1929 seriously affected mining in India and employment went down appreciably. It was only in 1936 that employment figures exceeded those of the pre-slump days. The recent War did give an impetus to some industries in this group but expansion has been meagre as compared to that in the factory industries. Whereas between 1939 and 1943 employment in factories increased by 39.1%, that in mines increased only by 14.4%. The following table gives figures for employment in mines subject to the Indian Mines Act, for specified years:—

TABLE 15.

Number of Mining Workers in Specified Years.

Year	Mines subject to the Mines Act	Workers			
		Underground	Open workings	Surface	Total.
1901	542	70,129	—	34,531	104,660
1924	1,804	167,719	—	90,498	258,217
1926	1,897	118,232	71,139	70,742	260,113
1933	1,424	112,355	41,589	52,565	206,507
1936	1,973	130,724	69,193	69,676	269,593
1939	1,864	146,827	76,659	81,858	305,344
1943	2,329	160,566	89,183	99,612	349,361

The Indian Mines Act and the Rules framed thereunder prohibit the employment of women underground and of children in any part of a mine. In August 1943, the Government of India temporarily lifted the ban on the employment of women underground in coal mines with a view to relieving a most distressing coal situation in the country. According to assurances given by Government in 1943, the ban has now become operative again since the 1st February, 1946. The effect of the imposition of this ban in respect of some mining industries in 1929 and in respect of all of them in October 1937 has naturally been to reduce the proportion of women among miners. The temporary lifting of the ban had an immediate effect, and the number of women employed in mines increased from 50,446 in 1939 to 72,403 in 1943. The following table gives figures for employment in mines, classified according to sex:—

TABLE 16.

Distribution according to Sex of Workers in Mines in Specified Years.

Year	Men		Women		Total
	Number	% of total	Number	% of total	
1926	181,616	69.8	78,497	30.2	260,113
1933	171,038	82.8	35,469	17.2	206,507
1936	226,958	84.2	42,635	15.8	269,593
1939	254,898	83.5	50,446	16.5	305,344
1943	276,958	79.3	72,403	20.7	349,361

The progressive elimination of women from underground work was started in 1929 and completed by 1937. As the table below will show, women formed as much as 26.96% of the total *underground* mining labour in 1926 and 20.58% in 1929. The figure for 1937 was only 3.16%. We would, however, like to mention here that the enforcement of this prohibition has not been completely effective. In the course of our *ad hoc* surveys it was found that in the mines located in inaccessible areas (e.g., mica mines) women still continue to be employed underground in a clandestine manner, though only in small numbers. Such employment, of course, remains unreported.

TABLE 17.

Number of Women Employed Underground in Mines Since 1928.

Year	Total underground labour force.	Women employed underground	
		Number	Percent to total
1928	117,940	31,785	26.96
1929	116,945	24,089	20.58
1930	120,333	18,684	15.56
1931	115,726	16,841	14.55
1932	110,907	14,711	13.26
1933	112,355	12,799	11.39
1934	120,216	11,193	9.31
1935	129,381	9,551	7.38
1936	130,724	7,301	5.59
1937	122,807	3,887	3.16
1938	140,651	Nil	—
1939	146,827	Nil	—
1943	160,566	7,111	4.43

Occupational Distribution.—As the next table shows, over 85 per cent of the total mining labour is employed in the coal, mica and manganese ore mining industries. Labour employed in collieries, is by far the largest and best organised group among the Indian miners. From 95,309 in 1901, employment in these mines had gone up to over 213,000 in 1943. Besides these, there are coal mines situated in Indian States, which are not subject to the Indian Mines Act. Employment in these mines in 1936 was 18,694.

Mica mining in India which produces about 80 per cent of the world's mica is the second largest employer of mining labour. Mica mines are generally small units and are situated in compact jungle areas in Bihar and Madras. Mica being one of the strategic minerals, its production was greatly stepped up in the course of the recent war. The number of workers employed in these mines increased from 32,111 in 1939 to 61,460 in 1943. Women form a little over one-tenth of the total, being 3,334 in 1939 and 6,747 in 1943. In recent years, a number of mines have been opened in Rajputana, mostly in the Udaipur State. It has not been possible to get accurate figures for employment in mines situated in this area, but we estimate that about 5,000 workers were employed in January, 1945.

Another commercially important category is that of manganese ore mines. Most of them are situated in the Central Provinces though a

number have been worked in Bihar, Bombay and Madras also. The demand for superior quality ore was high during war days, but paradoxically enough, employment decreased from 27,452 in 1939 to 24,271 in 1943. Among the labour employed in these mines aborigines predominate. The percentage of women is by far the highest in this industry, being 43.7 and 46.5 per cent of the total in 1937 and 1943 respectively. As most of these mines are surface workings, this is not illegal.

Among others, mention may be made of the gold, iron ore and copper ore mining and stone quarrying industries. The Committee conducted an *ad hoc* survey of labour conditions in the Gold Mines of Mysore State. The total employment in all the mines including contract labour was 23.924 in 1939, and 19,936 in 1943. Iron ore mines are situated in Bihar and are large units, 6 of them employing 9,347 persons in 1943. Surprising though it may appear, a few mines had to be kept closed during the war. About a third of the total number of workers consists of women. Copper ore mines employed 3,092 persons in 1939 and 3,999 in 1943. Of these, 228 and 251 were women in 1939 and 1943 respectively. The stone quarrying industries in British India employ about 22,000 workers, a little over 30% of these being women.

TABLE 18.

Workers in Different Classes of Mines,

Mineral.	1939				1943			
	No. of Mines.	Males.	Females.	Total.	No. of Mines.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1. Coal ...	619	178 985	23,004	201,989	828	173,971	39,125	213,096
2. Iron Ore ...	9	6,561	2,294	8,855	6	6,253	3,094	9,347
3. Manganese Ore ...	113	15,461	11,991	27,452	90	12,974	11,297	24,271
4. Gold ...	3	81	62	143	5	186	33	219
5. Chromite Ore ...	51	642	393	1,035	82	869	461	1,330
6. Copper Ore ...	6	2,864	228	3,092	5	3,748	251	3,999
7. Mica ...	812	28,777	3,334	32,111	1,057	54,713	6,747	61,460
8. Salt ...	3	1,392	—	1,392	3	1,342	—	1,342
9. Magnesite ...	3	1,962	814	2,776	3	1,872	426	2,298
10. Steatite ...	23	282	144	426	15	354	228	582
11. Slate ...	14	601	3	604	20	389	26	415
12. Lime Stone ...	30	4,836	2,403	7,239	38	6,309	3 545	9,854
13. Stone ...	118	9,856	3,881	13,737	99	8,509	3,269	11,778
14. Sandstone ...	2	134	49	188	2	62	43	105
15. Others ...	58	2,684	1,526	4,210	76	6,007	3,658	9,265
Grand Total (for all minerals) ...	1,864	254,898	50,446	305,344	2,329	276,958	72,403	349,361

Provincial Distribution of Mining Labour.—The Province of Bihar is the home of the mining industries in India. Coal, mica, iron ore and several varieties of stone are obtained in most parts of this area. In 1939, out of a total of 305,344 miners in the whole of British India, 170,384 were employed in Bihar. In 1943, the all-India figure increased to 349,361 out of which Bihar employed 206,922. Bengal and the Central Provinces come next in order of employment figures. Practically the whole of mining labour in Bengal is employed in the collieries. In C.P., manganese ore and coal mining are the two chief industries, employing about 85 per cent of the mining labour of the Province. The chief mining industry of Madras is mica. Out of 17,603 miners in the Province in 1943, 11,379 were employed in mica mines alone. The table below gives the distribution of mining labour by Provinces:—

TABLE 19.

Distribution by Provinces of Mining Workers in India.

	1939		1943	
Province	Number of workers.	Percentage of total	Number of workers	Percentage of total
Bihar	170,384	55.8	206,922	59.2
Bengal	60,965	20.0	60,507	17.3
Central Provinces	41,666	13.6	43,792	12.5
Madras	14,549	4.8	17,603	5.0
Others	17,780	5.8	20,537	6.0
Grand Total	305,344	100.0	349,361	100.0

VII—*Miscellaneous.*

Certain classes of industrial labour which do not fall in any of the groups mentioned above are the Central and Provincial Public Works Departments, Municipalities and Rickshaw-pullers. Employment in the Central Public Works Department has been subject to wide fluctuations, being dependent upon the nature and extent of the works programmes in different areas. As the table below shows, total employment in 1944 in five zones was 123,622. Of these 107,321 or 86.8% were unskilled. Departmental labour, i.e., labour employed and paid by the C.P.W.D., directly forms only a quarter of the total, the rest being employed by contractors.

TABLE 20.

Employment in the Central Public Works Department in 1944.

	Departmental		Contractors'	
Zone	Skilled	Unskilled	Skilled	Unskilled
Eastern India	1,650	14,390	5,965	39,723
Southern India	427	2,414	249	12,680
Western India	125	550	290	2,013
Central India	290	1,322	272	1,330
Northern India	2,072	8,262	4,971	24,737
Total	4,554	26,938	11,747	80,383
Grand Total:		123,622		

Figures given below show employment in some of the bigger Municipalities in India. We find that although population in all these towns has, in the course of the last six years, increased by 100 to 200 per cent, there has been little increase in the number of municipal employees:—

TABLE 21.

Employment in the bigger Municipalities.

Municipality.	1939	1944
Bombay ..	19,033	20,351
Calcutta ..	—	18,000
Madras ..	—	7,855
Lahore ..	3,187	3,966
Nagpur ..	—	2,305
Cawnpore ..	1,721	2,266
Karachi ..	—	2,728
Total	—	57,471

The number of workers employed as rickshaw-pullers has considerably increased since 1939. In Calcutta, Madras and Simla, where *ad hoc* surveys were conducted by the Committee, 28,098 persons were employed in 1939. By 1944, the number had increased to 40,882.

VIII.—*Age and Mortality Statistics.*

The importance of age and mortality statistics to the future programme of social security will be great, as such statistics will be useful for making actuarial calculations in regard to contributions, benefits and reserves, particularly in the case of Old Age Pensions, Invalidity Pensions, etc. Apart from this, the age distribution of a working-class population shows its efficiency in so far as age influences the capacity for work. Age distribution is also an index of the degree in which labour laws relating to employment of children are being enforced. Planning of welfare measures likewise has much to do with the question of age and mortality. The Indian population is notoriously "young", in the sense that it dies young, and that something like 40 per cent of it falls in the age group 0-15; while the low expectation of life at birth (26.91 years for males and 26.56 for females) is also a point in confirmation of its comparative "youth". The Indian figures for distribution of age among industrial workers show that the workers belong to the young and middle age-groups to a greater extent than to the older age-groups. This is in keeping with the situation as regards the age distribution of the Indian population as a whole, although it must be emphasised that a strict comparison between the two will not be valid in view of the fact that the age distribution of workers, referring as it does to the economically active age-groups, must show a predominance of the age-groups between (say) 15 and 55 years.

The personal investigations conducted by the Committee through their *ad hoc* survey staff in various industries and areas and the replies received from employers' and workers' associations and other bodies showed that neither employers nor workers attached any great importance to vital statistics, age data, length of service, sickness record, etc. There are no statutory obligations laid on employers to collect information on

such matters. So far as age is concerned, the workers themselves have no clear notion about it as a result of their illiteracy and there is always a tendency to give *round* figures. In the Indian villages, Registration of births and deaths is not as careful as it should be so that certification of age is also a doubtful proposition. The need for having a proper system of vital satistics was stressed by the Royal Commission, who drew attention to some of the defects in the present system of registration*. It does not appear, however, that there has been any great improvement in the recording of vital statistics, and as the Census Commissioner remarks in his Census Report for 1941 (Vol. I, Tables, p. 19), India is still far from "vital statistics-conscious".

The data available to the Committee through direct investigation were, therefore, rathtr scanty. Accordingly in what follows they have been supplemented by other data collected separately by other persons and bodies. A Bombay Labour Office enquiry (conducted in 1933) into working-class family budgets for Bombay and Ahmedabad gives figures for age distribution in mixed working-class populations in the two cities. Likewise, Mr. R. G. Gokhale, Labour Officer, Millowners' Association, Bombay, in a Note which was made available to us, has derived valuable statistics of age distribution from workmen's service records maintained by some of the member mills belonging to that Association. These figures are more recent and relate to the year 1941. Finally, the *Report on Health Insurance* by Professor B. P. Adarkar contains (in Appendix VI) a few useful tables giving the age distribution of industrial workers. The statistical material, which follows, is based upon all these sources.

Figures were available in respect of the following concerns:—

TABLE 22.

Details regarding concerns for which age data were available.

Unit No.	Name of Concern.	Province or State.	Industry.	Number of workers.
1	The Coorg Tea Factory	Coorg	Tea	31
2	Titaghur Paper Mills Ltd.	Bengal	Paper	2,835
3	The Furniture Factory.	Baroda	Engineering	51
4	Tinplate Company of India Ltd.	Bihar	,,	3708
5	Madras Corporation (Waterworks).	Madras	,,	69
6	Assam Oil Co. Ltd.	Assam	Mineral Oil	8,040
7	Andhra Paper Mills Ltd.	Madras	Paper	716
8	Lakshmiratan Cotton Mills Ltd.	U. P.	Cotton Textile	3,748
9	Rajalakshmi Mills Ltd.	Madras	,,	1,288
10	Madras Electric Tramways Ltd.	,,	Transport	340
11	Salem-Erode Electric Co.	,,	Engineering	128

[Data for Units 1-5 were available directly to the Committee; those for Units 6-11 are taken from the Adarkar Report].

In the above concerns, the percentage age distribution of workers (both males and females) was as shown in the following two tables:—

*Report, p. 249.

TABLE 23

Age Distribution of Workers in Five Concerns.

(Based on Information supplied to Committee).

Unit No.		Below 15	15-17	18-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	40-45	46-50	51-55	56-60	Above 60	Total
1.	Males ...	...	...	...	4	4	3	4	1	...	...	...	...	16
	Percentage	...	...	...	25.0	25.0	18.8	25.0	6.2	...	...	...	...	100.0
	Females ...	...	...	...	2	3	3	6	1	...	...	...	...	15
	Percentage	...	...	...	13.3	20.0	20.0	40.0	6.7	...	...	...	...	100.0
	Both ...	...	...	...	6	7	6	10	2	...	...	...	...	31
	Percentage	...	...	...	19.3	22.6	19.3	32.3	6.5	...	...	...	...	100.0
2.	Males ...	...	8	66	458	601	678	347	236	140	90	45	45	2,714
	Percentage	...	0.3	2.4	16.9	22.2	24.9	12.7	8.7	5.2	3.3	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Females ...	...	...	...	10	29	21	25	21	11	4	...	...	121
	Percentage	...	...	...	8.3	23.8	17.4	20.7	17.4	9.1	3.3	...	...	100.0
	Both ...	...	8	66	468	630	699	372	257	151	94	45	45	2,835
	Percentage	...	0.3	2.3	16.6	22.2	24.7	13.1	9.0	5.3	3.3	1.6	1.6	100.0
3.	Males ...	...	...	9	15	4	6	6	5	2	2	...	...	49
	Percentage	...	...	18.4	30.6	8.2	12.2	12.2	10.2	4.1	4.1	...	...	100.0
	Females ...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	2
	Percentage	...	...	...	...	...	50.0	...	...	...	50.0	...	...	100.0
	Both ...	...	...	9	15	4	7	6	5	2	3	...	...	51
	Percentage	...	...	17.6	29.6	7.8	13.6	11.8	9.8	3.9	5.9	...	...	100.0
4.	Males ...	...	21	191	670	622	643	622	453	238	77	13	12	3,562
	Percentage	...	0.6	5.4	18.7	17.5	18.1	17.5	12.7	6.7	2.2	0.3	0.3	100.0
	Females ...	...	1	18	23	24	31	21	15	10	1	...	2	146
	Percentage	...	0.7	12.5	15.7	16.4	21.2	14.4	10.1	6.9	0.7	...	1.4	100.0
	Both ...	...	22	209	693	646	674	643	468	248	78	13	14	3,708
	Percentage	...	0.6	5.6	18.7	17.3	18.2	17.4	12.6	6.7	2.1	0.4	0.4	100.0
5.	Males only	...	...	...	2	4	10	10	14	17	10	2	....	69
	Percentage	...	...	...	2.9	5.8	14.5	14.5	20.3	24.6	14.5	2.9	...	100.0

TABLE 24.

Percentage Age Distribution of Workers in Six Concerns.

(Based on the Report on the Health Insurance)

Unit No.		Below 16	16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	Above 55	Total
6.	Males ...	12	376	2023	2143	1421	1165	596	196	57	15	8009
	Percentage ...	0.1	4.8	25.3	26.8	17.7	14.6	7.4	2.4	0.7	0.2	100.0
	Females ...	...	1	13	6	3	6	2	...	...	...	31
	Percentage ...	...	3.2	41.9	19.4	9.7	19.4	6.4	...	...	...	100.0
	Both ...	12	377	2036	2154	1424	1171	598	196	57	15	8040
	Percentage ...	0.1	4.7	25.3	26.8	17.7	14.6	7.4	2.4	0.7	0.3	100.0
7.	Males ...	1	45	80	100	130	75	70	50	37	3	591
	Percentage ...	0.2	7.7	13.6	16.9	22.0	12.7	11.8	8.4	6.2	0.5	100.0
	Females ...	...	2	8	20	30	25	20	15	4	1	125
	Percentage ...	...	1.6	6.4	16.0	24.0	20.0	16.0	12.0	3.2	0.8	100.0
	Both ...	1	47	88	120	160	100	90	65	41	4	716
	Percentage ...	0.1	6.6	12.3	16.8	22.3	14.0	12.8	9.2	5.8	0.1	100.0
8.	Males ...	...	185	555	740	740	555	370	370	148	37	3700
	Percentage ...	...	5.0	15.0	20.0	20.0	15.0	10.0	10.0	4.0	1.0	100.0
	Females ...	...	5	3	8	10	14	5	3	...	...	48
	Percentage ...	...	10.0	6.2	16.8	20.8	29.2	10.4	6.2	...	...	100.0
	Both ...	...	190	558	748	750	569	375	373	148	37	3748
	Percentage ...	...	5.1	14.8	19.9	20.0	15.2	10.0	10.0	4.0	1.0	100.0
9.	Males ...	...	366	278	129	62	38	31	12	12	...	928
	Percentage ...	...	39.4	30.0	13.9	6.7	4.1	3.3	1.3	1.3	...	100.0
	Females ...	...	128	89	64	37	23	14	5	...	...	360
	Percentage ...	...	35.6	24.7	17.7	10.3	6.4	3.9	1.4	...	...	100.0
	Both ...	...	494	367	193	99	61	45	17	12	...	1288
	Percentage ...	...	38.3	28.5	15.0	7.7	4.8	3.5	1.3	0.9	...	...
10.	Males only ...	...	9	62	58	62	77	32	30	8	2	340
	Percentage ...	...	2.6	18.3	17.0	18.3	22.6	9.4	8.8	2.4	0.6	100.0
11.	Males only ...	...	2	16	31	31	26	11	9	1	1	128
	Percentage ...	...	1.6	12.5	24.2	20.2	20.3	8.6	7.0	0.8	0.8	100.0

Apart from these figures, two somewhat disparate sets of figures were available to the Committee, one relating to plantations, an the other to carpet-weaving and coir-matting industries. The figures are reproduced below:—

TABLE 25.

Age Composition of Workers on Plantations.

	Assam Valley.		Surma Valley (97 gardens).		Dooars (72 gardens).		Terai.		Darjeeling (27 gardens.)		South India (Some gardens)	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Those under 15 years ...	(a)	14.3	24 960	20.8	28 059	25.7	1,696	8.7	4,684	21.1	6,134	11.7
Between 15 and 55	(a)	84.7	87,109	72.3	76.517	70.0	17,020	87.7	16,248	73.2	44,884	85.7
Over 55 ...	(a)	1.0	8,364	6 9	4,669	4.3	684	3.6	1,279	5.7	1,356	2.6
Total ...	—	100.0	120,433	100.0	109,245	100.0	19,400	100.0	22,211	100.0	52,374	100.0

(a) Not supplied.

TABLE 26.

Age Composition of Sampled Workers in Carpet-weaving and Coir-matting Industries.

		Below 15	15—20	20—25	25—30	30—40	40—50	Over 50	Total
Carpet-weaving *									
Mirzapur	*Number*	5	16	22	29	25	6	4	107
	Per cent.	4.7%	14.9%	20.6%	27.1%	23.4%	5.6%	3.7%	100%
Coir-matting									
(i) *Travancore*	Number	Nil	33	99	92	173	86	25	508
	Per cent	Nil	6.5%	19.5%	18.1%	34.2%	16.8%	4.9%	100%
(ii) *Cochin*	Number	Nil	4	6	5	23	6	2	56
	Per cent	Nil	8.7%	13.0	10.9%	50.0%	13.0%	4.4%	100%

* In the carpet-weaving factories at Shrinagar, children below the age of 12 formed about 11 percent while young persons between 12 and 17 constituted another 6 percent, of total employment. In Gwalior, about 71 percent. of the total employed were children.

It is difficult to draw any definite conclusions from the foregoing tables. Generally speaking, it appears that the "modal" age group falls between 26 and 40 years. As regards entry into service, most workers appear to enter the industrial field in large numbers between 21 and 25 years. After the age of 40 there is a gradual decline in the frequency of workers. However, there is seldom any upper age limit. Workers drag on even beyond the age of 55 and retire voluntarily or are discharged, mostly without earning pensions.

The figures also show that employment of children is negligible or non-existent in these concerns. However, it must be remembered that the concerns supplying figures are more law-abiding than some of the others and also that employment of children is almost always clandestine. The lower age limit for employment in regulated factories, mines, railways, port trusts and certain minor industries is fixed respectively by the Factories Act, the Indian Mines Act and the Employment of Children Act. The lower limit is 12 years in the case of factories under the Factories Act; 15 years in that of mines under the Mines Act; 15 years for railways, and port trusts and 12 years for bidi-making, carpet-weaving, cement, cloth-printing, dyeing and weaving, matches, explosives and fireworks, mica cutting and splitting, shellac, and tanning and wool cleaning, under the Employment of Children Act as amended in 1939. Apart from this, the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act, 1932, which is applicable to labour emigrating to the tea districts of Assam, prohibits the assisted emigration of a child (below 16 years), but permits a child to accompany a parent or other adult relative on whom he is dependent. Thus, actual employment of children on plantations is not prohibited, but only their assisted emigration. We are not concerned here with the details, as these are dealt with elsewhere both in this Report and in our *ad hoc* survey Reports. The important fact that has emerged from the investigations is that in various industries, mainly smaller industries, the prohibition of employment of children is disregarded quite openly, and owing to the inadequacy of the inspection staff it has become difficult to enforce the relevant provisions of the law. Consequently, though figures are not likely to be available for such employment, it may well be taken for granted in certain industries and areas.

It may be interesting to consider the other data available, viz., those from the Bombay Labour Office enquiry and from Mr. R. G. Gokhale's Note, to which reference was made earlier. The Bombay Labour Office enquiry was a family-budget enquiry and this was conducted in Bombay between September, 1932, and June, 1933, and in Ahmedabad between October, 1933 and January, 1935, and covered not only cotton textile workers but also workers in other industries, although in both the centres, the former predominated (64.47 per cent in Bombay and 82.75 per

cent in Ahmedabad). The following table gives the percentage age distribution for the two centres:—

TABLE 27.

Age Distribution of Workers in Bombay and Ahmedabad.

Age Group	According to Bombay Family Budget Enquiry	According to Ahmedabad Family Budget Enquiry.
Below 20	7.1	11.1
20-25	12.2	18.7
26-30	22.9	24.4
31-35	18.0	15.8
36-40	14.6	11.9
41-45	11.7	8.2
46-50	8.5	5.8
51-55	4.0	2.6
Above 55	1.0	1.2
Unspecified	—	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0

It appears from the above table that the age distribution is more favourable to the younger age-groups in Ahmedabad than in Bombay. This is probably explained by the fact that the labour drawn to Bombay from the Konkan and Deccan districts is mainly adult, while the labour engaged in the Ahmedabad industries, being drawn from the villages round about the city, contains a larger element of adolescents and is local to a greater extent than in the case of Bombay. In this connection, it may be worth while to compare these figures with figures in the previous table for Units 8 and 9 (both cotton textile mills, one at Cawnpore and the other at Coimbatore). The predominance of adolescent labour in the Coimbatore mill is remarkable, as compared to the Cawnpore mill, which more or less follows the pattern of the above table.

Finally, attention may be drawn to the results obtained by Mr. R. G. Gokhale from a study of workmen's service records in 19 Bombay cotton textile mills in Bombay. The following table shows the relative position of the different age groups in those mills in the year 1940.

TABLE 28.

Age Distribution in 19 Bombay Cotton Mills.

Age Groups	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
Below 20 years	880	2.8	133	2.1	1,013	2.9
20-25	5,728	18.1	854	14.0	6,582	17.5
26-30	7,933	25.1	1,398	23.1	9,331	24.8
31-35	6,790	21.5	1,294	21.3	8,084	21.5
36-40	5,269	16.7	1,032	17.1	6,301	16.6
41-45	2,539	8.0	687	11.5	3,226	8.5
46-50	1,473	4.7	438	8.2	1,911	5.1
51-55	605	2.1	149	2.5	754	2.0
56-60	236	0.7	67	0.1	303	0.8
Over 60 years	100	0.3	18	0.0	118	0.3
Total	31,553	100.0	6,070	100.0	37,623	100.0

It will be seen that the age composition in this table is more or less similar to that in the Labour Office tables. As between the Bombay figures for 1932-33 and 1940, available in these two tables, however, there is now a greater concentration of workers in the 36—40 age group than before and the proportion of workers below 20 has fallen off considerably.

Mr. Gokhale has also studied the age distribution of workers in the case of different departments in mills, and drawn interesting conclusions. The following table gives the age composition:—

TABLE 29.

Age Distribution in Various Departments of Mills.

Departments	Men			Women		
	below 25 years	25 to 40 year.	Over 40 years.	Below 25 years.	25 to 40 year.	Over 40 years
	%	%	%	%	%	%
1. Mixing to Speed Frame.	17.7	65.1	17.2	9.3	58.2	32.5
2. Ring	29.5	59.2	11.3	13.4	69.9	16.7
3. Winding & Reeling	31.0	52.2	16.8	17.0	62.4	20.6
4. Weaving Shed	16.7	68.3	15.0	—	27.3*	72.7*
5. Engineering, Mechanics, Watch & Ward.	13.2	59.9	25.9	7.0*	67.0*	26.0*
6. Others	26.0	56.9	17.1	11.6	46.4	42.0
All Depts.	20.9	63.3	15.8	16.2	61.5	22.3

*Based on very small numbers of workers.

In the above table, the highest percentage of workers in the group "below 25 years" occurs in the Winding and Reeling departments, in which mainly new entrants, generally young are employed. The lowest percentage in the same age-group occurs in the case of Engineering, Mechanics and Watch and Ward departments, as may be expected, because here adults are largely employed.

As regards mortality figures, not a single concern or employer has been able to supply any data. Only two concerns have given some sort of reply to the questions relating to mortality. F.F. Chrestien & Co. Ltd., Domchanch, a concern engaged in mica mining and mica manufacturing in Bihar, has stated that the expectation of life amongst its workers is about 45 years. This looks a suspiciously high figure, even assuming that the expectation of life in question is not at birth but at a later year. The Bangalore Woollen, Cotton and Silk Mills have given the mortality figure as 5 per 1,000 workers during the year 1943. Not being able to secure any reliable figures for mortality, therefore, we have to turn elsewhere for this information. The following figures give a broad picture

of the fertility and mortality for the entire population in India and other countries:—

TABLE 30.

Birth and Death Rates, Infant Mortality and Expectation of Life.

Country	Birth and Death rates per 1,000.		Infant Mortality Deaths under 1 year per 1,000 live births.	Expectation of life at birth (years).	
	Births	Deaths		Males	Females
Canada	20.3	9.6	61	58.96	60.73
U.S.A.	17.3	10.6	48	60.60	64.50
Germany	20.3	12.3	60	59.86	62.81
U.K.	15.3	12.2	53	60.18	64.40
Australia	17.7	9.9	38	63.48	67.14
Japan	27.0	17.6	114	46.92	49.63
India	33.0	21.8	167	26.91	26.56

The above table reveals that, considered from the demographic point of view, the Indian population is a C-3 population. The labour force of industries, which is derived from such a population, must share the characteristics of such a population, viz., high birth, death and infant mortality rates, and a low expectation of life.

The following table gives an idea as to the comparative position as regards the expectation of life at various ages in India and England in the recent past. The figures are from the Census Report for 1931, as no figures were published in that Report for 1941 in this connection:—

TABLE 31.

Comparative Expectation of Life at Decennial Ages for India and England.

Age	All India					England		
	1881	1891	1901	1911	1931	1901	1911	1921
0	23.67	24.59	23.63	22.65	26.91	44.07	46.04	55.62
10	34.00	35.46	34.73	33.36	36.38	49.65	52.35	44.64
20	28.55	29.24	28.59	27.46	29.57	41.04	43.67	45.73
30	23.80	23.66	22.90	22.45	23.60	33.06	35.29	37.40
40	18.90	18.75	17.91	18.01	18.60	25.65	27.27	29.19
50	13.93	14.28	13.59	13.97	14.31	18.89	19.85	21.36
60	9.25	10.12	9.53	10.00	10.25	12.90	13.83	14.36
70	5.44	6.49	5.80	6.19	6.35	8.02	8.25	8.75
80	2.87	3.69	3.07	3.06	3.13	4.40	4.64	4.93
90	1.00	1.69	1.23	1.15	1.12	2.32	2.37	2.82

It will appear from the above table that the expectation of life goes on improving up to 10 years and then falls steadily. This is mainly due to the fact that mortality is very high between 0-5 years, the age-group which accounts for nearly 50 per cent of the total deaths in India. As Mr. L. S. Vaidyanathan, in his *Actuarial Report* included in the Census Report of 1931, remarks, "the primary cause of the abnormally heavy mortality experienced by the masses in India is traceable to very low economic status".

CHAPTER II.

LABOUR LEGISLATION AND ITS WORKING

I—*Some General Observations.*

The first organised industry in India which attracted legislative control was the Plantation industry in Assam. The recruitment of labour from distant places to Assam by *arkattis* or professional recruiters led to disastrous results and several Acts were passed, both by the Bengal and Central Government, from 1863 onwards to regulate the recruitment. The first Factories Act and the Mines Act were passed in 1881 and 1901 respectively. The early labour legislation was thus in connection with specific industries, but the tendency from the 'twenties has been to enact special legislation for the general class of industrial workers, e.g., in respect of workmen's compensation, trade unionism, trade disputes etc.

The experience of World War I influenced a great deal the attitude of Government and of employers towards labour. The principle of State intervention in industrial matters was extended and there was a keener realisation of the value of a contended labour force and of the advantages of collective action on the part of employers and workers respectively. In 1919, the Treaty of Versailles brought into existence the International Labour Organisation with the object of ameliorating labour conditions throughout the world. Participation by the Government of India, employers and employees at the annual conferences of this organisation has had an immense educative effect and there is no doubt that this has given a great fillip to labour legislation in India. India has so far ratified 14 out of the 63 I.Lo. Conventions.

In the 'twenties labour legislation took great strides. The law relating to factories was consolidated in the Factories Act, 1922, and many new and important Acts were passed, viz., The Indian Mines Act, 1923, the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926 and the Trade Disputes Act, 1929. In 1931, the Report of the Royal Commission on Labour in India was published and it contained a series of valuable recommendations for the enactment and administration of labour laws. As a result, the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act was passed in 1932, the Factories Act was thoroughly overhauled in 1934, the Trade Disputes Act was amended and permanently placed on the Statute Book in 1934 and the Payment of Wages Act was passed in 1936. The Children (Pledging of Labour) Act was passed in 1933 and the Indian Dock Labourers Act in 1934. Most of the Commission's recommendations in respect of the Workmen's Compensation Act have also been implemented. The Land Acquisition Act, 1894, was amended in 1933 enabling a company to acquire land compulsory for erecting dwelling houses for its workmen and for the provision of amenities connected with them. Maternity Benefit legislation was in existence only in Bombay and the Central Provinces before the Report of the Commission was published. Similar legislation was enacted in most of the other Provinces and the Central Government also passed the Mines Maternity Benefit Act, 1941, for all mining industries.

Though legislative powers in the Labour field were held jointly by the Central and Provincial Governments before the Government of India Act of 1935 came into force, the Provincial output was small. It consisted mainly of the Maternity Benefit Acts in Bombay (1929), the

Central Provinces (1930) and Madras (1935), the Bombay Trade Disputes Conciliation Act, 1934, the Bengal Workmen's Protection Act, 1935, the Central Provinces Adjustment and Liquidation of Industrial Workers' Debt Act, 1936, the Central Provinces Unregulated Factories Act, 1937, and the Central Provinces Protection of Debtor's Act, 1937. After the Government of India Act, 1935, which conceded Provincial Autonomy and which came into force in 1937, the popular Ministries undertook labour legislation more enthusiastically. The Congress Ministries were guided by the labour policy of the Congress which was to "secure to the industrial workers a decent standard of living, hours of work and conditions of labour in conformity, as far as the economic conditions in the country permit, with international standards, suitable machinery for the settlement of disputes between employers and workmen, protection against the economic consequences of old age, sickness and unemployment and the right of workers to form unions and to strike for the protection of their interests". The Governments of Bombay, C.P., U.P., and Bihar appointed committees for enquiring into conditions of labour. In November 1939, the Congress Ministries resigned before the recommendations of these committees could be fully implemented. The Non-Congress Ministries also took keen interest in the labour problems. Several Provinces appointed Labour Commissioners for dealing with labour problems in their areas and there are today Labour Commissioners in all the industrially important Provinces. The most important piece of Provincial Labour Legislation during this regime was the Industrial Disputes Act, 1938, the only one of its kind in the provincial field seeking to provide for peaceful settlement of trade disputes. Another notable legislative measure was the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1939. The Maternity Benefit Act in Bengal, United Provinces, Punjab, Assam and Sind, and the Shops and Establishments Acts in Bengal and Sind and the Trade Employees Act in the Punjab may be cited and illustrations of the zeal of the popular Ministries for improving labour conditions.

In spite of this progress, however, there was some lack of co-ordination in regard to the measures adopted and their administration. To remedy this, the Government of India have convened Labour Ministers Conferences since 1940. At the third Conference in January 1942, a tripartite machinery was suggested by the Hon'ble the Labour Member to advise Government on labour problems and the first Tripartite Labour Conference was held in August 1942. A Standing Labour Committee was also constituted to examine questions referred to it by the Plenry Conference or by the Central Government. This development has been in conformity with the Royal Commission's recommendation for the setting up of an Industrial Council and has had a perceptible effect in expediting labour legislation and is expected to bring about greater uniformity in labour legislation and administration throughout India.

Labour Legislation has also made considerable progress in the industrially advanced States which have adopted the more important British Indian measures with some variations. It appears, however, that although these Acts have been passed, they are not yet *notified* in some of the States and hence have not come into operation. There is, moreover, some time-lag between British Indian legislation and its adoption by States. The enactment of the Mysore Labour Act, 1942, is a noticeable step in

the progress of labour legislation in the Indian States. The Act creates machinery for peaceful and speedy settlement of industrial disputes and seeks generally to promote the welfare of labour. It confers the right of association on labour but, while avoiding rival associations by prescribing a single association for each industrial establishment, prevents the growth of horizontal unions in the same trade. It confers statutory recognition on each association on registration. It may also be mentioned here that the Cochin State alone, in the whole of India, has taken action to control labour conditions in plantations by framing plantation labour rules which came into force in May 1937. On the whole, labour legislation in States appears to fall short of the standards in British India. For instance, the mining legislation in Mysore and Baroda which was passed as early as in 1906 and 1908 respectively is designed mainly to provide for the safety of persons working in the mines and does not attempt to regulate the hours of work. Travancore is the only exception where the Mines and Minerals Act of 1928 limits the working days to 6 a week, hours of work to 11 a day and 54 a week overground and 42 a week underground and prohibits employment of women in mines before 6 a.m. and after 6 p.m.

In our General Questionnaire information and views were asked only in respect of four important Acts, namely, the Factories Act, the Payment of Wages Act, the Workmen's Compensation Act and the Maternity Benefit Acts. In our *ad hoc* survey, however, we have studied the working of some other Labour Acts which were applicable to the industries surveyed. We are thus able to give a brief account of the working of these Acts in the following pages. We have mainly refrained from suggesting definite amendments to the Acts, as this is to be dealt with by the Planning Committee to be appointed later.

II—*Factory Legislation.*

The most important labour legislation in India relates to factories. The Act which now regulates working conditions in them is the Indian Factories Act, 1934, which thoroughly overhauled the previous legislation on the subject as a result of the Royal Commission's recommendations.

During our ad hoc surveys we found that so far as the larger industrial establishments were concerned, the Act was, on the whole, being satisfactorily observed, although there was a considerable evasion of its provisions in small and seasonal factories, particularly in respect of hours of work and overtime, employment of children, safety, health and sanitation.

Sometimes, the managers of smaller factories in the mofussil tamper with the clock in order to get more labour out of their workpeople. Factory inspections and even surprise visits are of no avail in this matter as the managements generally get advance information about the arrival of the Factory Inspector. Where overlapping shifts are worked there is also put in of the worker being made to more work and it is difficult for the Factory Inspectors to check this. In some factories we also noticed that overtime work was not being paid for according to the provisions of the Factories Act. This was particularly noticed in some of the potteries in Calcutta and in some match factories in the Central Provinces. In a few cases the managements maintained double registers one intended for the factory inspector, and another for themselves.

Statistics of Factories published by the Government of India show that the percentage of certified children to the total number of workers employed in factories was 3 in 1929,* 1.23 in 1934,* .54 in 1939, and .51 in 1943.[1] Although child labour has according to these figures, steadily gone down, our enquiries showed that its employement in contravention of Section 50 of the Act was still wide-spread in match factories in South India, in glass, bidi, and shellac factories, in tanneries and in seasonal factories such as cotton ginning and baling and rice mills. In some match factories in South India, it was found that children under 12 years of age were in possession of certificates of fitness.

Evasions of the safety provisions of the Act were noticed in sugar factories, potteries, printing presses, chemical factories, rice mills and cotton ginning and baling factories. In several chemical factories workers were found working without any masks or gloves. It was admitted by the manager of a Chemical concern that there had been a few cases of gas attacks when two years ago it used to manufacture bleaching powder. In another, there are 2 or 3 cases of gas attack every week. The local Union reported that in some cases workers did not regain consciousness even after 24 hours. In several factories though a caution notice is put up against cleaning the machinery while in motion, in practice the workers are often obliged to do so.

So far as provisions in respect of health and sanitation are concerned, latrines and urinals are generally provided in accordance with the prescribed standards but they are kept in a very insanitary condition. Seasonal factories are the worst offenders in this respect. In some cotton and jute mills, cotton ginning and baling factories, rice mills, tea factories, coffee curing works and cement works dust nuisance still prevails. The dust nuisance in tea factories and rice mills was commented upon by the Royal Commission and it is reported that action has been taken in most provinces to implement their recommendations in this connection, but in actual practice, the position is still far from satisfactory.

The evasions of the law are largely due to the fact that factory inspectorates in different provinces are entirely inadequate. The following tables compiled from the statistics of factories show the extent to which factories remained uninspected in the various provinces in 1939 and 1943.

*These years include figures for Burma also.

TABLE 32.

Inspections of Factories in 1939.

Province.	Inspected once.	%	Inspected twice.	%	Inspected three times.	%	Inspected more than three times.	%	Total inspected	%	Not inspected.	%	Grand Total.
Bombay	1,070	34	879	28	386	12	406	13	2,741	87	379	13	3,120
Madras	441	24	724	40	472	26	120	7	1,757	97	54	3	1,811
Bengal	905	52	245	14	124	8	120	7	1,394	81	331	19	1,725
U.P.	203	37	180	33	91	17	72	13	546	100	...	...	546
Bihar	189	58	62	19	22	6	16	5	289	88	39	12	328
Punjab	292	37	156	19	69	9	37	4	554	69	246	31	800
C.P. & Berar ...	175	24	250	34	146	19	118	16	689	93	51	7	740
Assam	315	41	119	15	37	5	10	1	479	62	294	38	773
Sind	97	30	121	37	50	15	51	16	319	98	5	2	324
Orissa	42	48	32	36	8	9	1	1	83	94	5	6	88
N.W.F.P.	18	50	4	11	...	...	...	...	22	61	14	39	36
Delhi	...	...	49	44	30	27	32	29	111	100	...	...	111
Ajmer-Merwara ...	6	17	16	44	14	39	...	...	36	100	...	...	36
Baluchistan ...	12	80	1	7	...	...	...	...	13	87	2	13	15
Bangalore & Coorg ...	1	8	12	92	...	...	...	...	13	100	...	...	13
Total for 1939 ...	3,764	36	2,850	27	1,449	14	983	9	9,046	87	1,420	14	10,466
Total for 1938 ...	4,239	43	2,561	26	1,139	12	770	8	8,709	90	1,034	11	9,743

TABLE 33.

Inspections of Factories in 1943.

Province	Inspected once.	%	Inspected twice.	%	Inspected three times.	%	Inspected more than three times.	%	Total inspected	%	Not inspected	%	Grand Total.
Bombay	1,671	43	1,008	26	415	11	443	11	3,537	91	377	9	3,914
Madras	763	30	913	36	583	23	142	5	2,401	94	165	6	2,566
Bengal	889	46	237	12	126	7	96	5	1,348	70	591	30	1,939
U.P.	352	41	243	28	128	15	133	16	856	100	...	...	856
Bihar	242	60	59	15	16	4	20	5	337	84	62	16	399
Punjab	480	43	121	11	19	2	3	...	623	56	487	44	1,110
C.P. & Berar ...	482	59	224	27	77	9	37	5	820	100	2	...	822
Assam	404	51	11	1	1	...	1	...	417	52	383	48	800
Sind	202	46	99	22	60	14	78	18	439	100	3	...	442
Orissa	25	26	2	2	...	...	...	...	27	28	71	72	98
N.W.F.P.	19	56	1	3	...	...	...	...	20	59	14	41	34
Delhi	123	74	22	13	13	8	9	5	167	100	...	...	167
Ajmer-Merwara ...	8	25	16	50	8	25	...	...	32	100	...	...	32
Baluchistan ...	11	79	3	21	...	...	...	...	14	100		...	14
Bangalore & Coorg ...	2	13	13	81	...	...	...	...	15	94	1	6	16
Total for 1943 ...	5,673	43	2,972	23	1,446	11	962	7	11,053	84	2,156	16	13,209
Total for 1942 ...	4,780	38	3,040	24	1,327	11	1,013	8	10,160	81	2,367	19	12,527

It will appear from the above tables that 11 and 14 percent of the total number of factories in British India were not inspected in 1938 and 1939 respectively and that this percentage went up to 19 and 16 in 1942 and 1943 respectively. The percentage of uninspected perennial and seasonal factories to the total number of such factories was 8 and 14 in 1938, 10 and 21 in 1939, 17 and 26 in 1942 and 14 and 23 in 1943 respectively. It is, however, remarkable that in 1943, 72 percent of the factories remained uninspected in Orissa, 48 in Assam, 44 in the Punjab and 30 per cent in Bengal. Obviously, it is not sufficient to inspect the factories once a year. Additional visits are necessary particularly in the case of such factories as are situated in remoter parts of the provinces. As rightly pointed out by Sir Atul Chatterjee, "In India, one annual inspection of a factory is of a very limited value for the enforcement of labour laws, since the workers are mostly illiterate or live far away from the Inspector's Office."[1] That the present strength of the Inspectorate is inadequate is admitted by almost all the Chief Inspectors and by some of the Provincial Governments. The Madras Government has under consideration a proposal to increase the strength of the factory inspectorate whereby each Inspector will have to inspect about 250 factories a year. The Royal Commission's recommendation about the appointment of women inspectors and medical inspectors has not been implemented except in Bombay and Madras. In connection with the question of increasing the size of the inspectorates, we may refer to the action taken in the Central Provinces (by Act XXXVI of 1939) and the Punjab (by Act VII of 1940) to amend the Factories Act requiring payment of a fee for registration of factories for the purpose of partly defraying the expenditure on the factory inspectorate. Moreover, the tendency in most Provinces is to congregate the inspection staff at headquarters instead of spreading it out at different important industrial centres. We may also state that some of the inspection reports of Factory Inspectors seen by us show that they concentrate more on the technical aspects of factory inspection than on the human aspects such as employment, hours of work, working conditions etc.

Another chief reason why evasion of the Act are still common is that the offenders are generally punished lightly, especially by mofussil courts. In this connection the Royal Commission observed, "In the majority of the provinces there are numerous cases of inadequate fines, particularly for repeated offences; not infrequently, the fine is smaller than the profit made by the offender out of the offence."[2] There has been no improvement in this respect since the time of the Royal Commission as will be clear from the following two tables[3] which give the figures of prosecutions, convictions and fines imposed under the Act in each Province in 1939 and 1943.

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1 In an article on "Federalism and Labour Legislation in India" in the *International Labour Review*, April-May, 1944, p. 21.

2 Report of the Royal Commission on Labour in India, pp. 73-74.

3 Compiled from the Chief Inspectors of Factories' Reports for the different Provinces.

TABLE 34.

Prosecutions, Convictions and Fines 1939.

Province	Number of factories	Number of workers	Number of cases filed under the Act.	Number of convictions.	Total amount of fines imposed.	Average fine per conviction
					Rs.	Rs. A. P.
Bombay	3,120	4,66,040	322	311	9,121	29 5 0
Madras	1,811	1,97,266	*	542	7,613	14 0 0
Bengal	1,725	5,71,539	102	95	*	...
U.P.	546	1,59,738	41	17	995	53 3 0
Bihar	328	95,988	19	12	435	36 4 0
Punjab	800	78,302	501	409	6,440	15 12 0
C.P. & Berar	740	64,494	120	52	*	...
Assam	377	52,003	*	6	*	...
Sind	324	24,995	104	90	916	10 9 0
Orissa	88	5,371	42	28	295	10 9 0
N.W.F.P.	36	1,268	...	...	...	...
Delhi	111	17,400	...	...		...
Ajmer-Merwara	36	3,330	...	...	...	...
Baluchistan	16	2,023	...	...	...	...
Bangalore & Coorg	13	1,380	...	...	...	...

*Not furnished.

TABLE 35.

Prosecutions, Convictions and Fines 1943.

Province.	Number of factories	Number of workers.	Number of cases filed under the Act.	Number of Convictions.	Total amount of fines imposed	Average fine per conviction.
					Rs.	Rs. A. P.
Bombay	3,914	7,11,525	436	361	11,102	30 12 0
Madras	2,566	2,62,347	*	49	1,385	28 3 0
Bengal	1,939	6,95,043	12	11	*	...
U.P.	856	2,54,839	187	138	9,610	69 10 0
Bihar	399	1,27,929	*	11	*	...
Punjab	1,110	1,43,166	1,281	1,087	11,516	13 5 0
C.P. & Berar	822	84,696	*	39	*	...
Assam	800	58,023	6	6	*	...
Sind	442	34,230	84	84	3,425	40 10 0
Orissa ...	98	6,957	...	...	...	...
N.W.F.P.	34	5,029	...	...	...	...
Delhi	167	28,191	3	3	270	90 0 0
Ajmer-Merwara	32	17,554	3	3	225	75 0 0
Baluchistan	14	3,744	*	...	...	...
Bangalore & Coorg	16	3,040	*	...	...	...

*Not furnished.

As the above tables show, the average amount of fine imposed per conviction is very small in all Provinces except U.P. and Bihar in 1939, but the position shows some improvement in 1943. The award of light punishments encourages offenders to defy the law instead of having any salutary effect on them. The above tables further show that, as compared with the workers employed, the number of prosecutions was small in Bengal, Bihar and U.P. in 1939 and that the situation, on the whole, deteriorated still further in 1943. In Bengal only 12 prosecutions were launched in 1943, though the Province employs nearly 7 lakhs of workers.

As regards exemptions under the Act, the tendency has been generally speaking for Provincial Governments to grant an increasing number of them. We feel that even if the power of granting exemptions is retained, it should be very sparingly used. The Royal Commission also recommended that "if workers are compelled to work in circumstances which involve the grant of an exemption, they should, wherever possible, receive a benefit in a form balancing as closely as possible with the deprivation involved in the exemption."[1] Workers however, complain that no compensation is generally extended to them by the employers and urge that there should be stipulation in the Act for the grant of compensatory privileges in lieu of exemptions.

Inspite of the Royal Commission's recommendation that a separate Act should be passed relating to workshops, i.e., unregulated factories which do not use power, irrespective of the number of persons employed no action has so far been taken by the Government of India in this connection. The Central Provinces Unregulated Factories Act, 1937, is the only legislation which applies to unregulated factories employing 50 or more persons and engaged in bidi-making, shellac manufacture or leather tanning, the three industries mentioned by the Royal Commission as specially requiring attention. The Act lays down certain minimum standards of health and safety and regulates the working hours of adults and children. The C.P. Government also framed bye-laws in 1941 under the C. P. & Berar Municipalities Act, for the regulation of conditions in bidi factories. Both these measures have not so far been successful mainly for want of adequate enforcement. The Act has also been evaded by several bidi factory owners by splitting up their establishments.

The important unregualted factories in the country are those of bidi, mica, shellac (if power-driven machinery is not used) and carpet-weaving and small tanneries. Though these factories employing 10 or more persons can be brought under the Factories Act for all or any purposes of the Act by a notification under Section 5 (1) no action has been taken so far by any Provincial Government, except Bombay in the case of bidi factories and U.P. in the case of glass factories, presumably because of the difficulty of adequately inspecting such factories. The considered opinion of the Conference of the Chief Inspectors of Factories held in 1944 was that the Factories Act should be applied to all concerns employing 10 or more workers. The workers in unregulated factories, who constitute a considerable proportion of the industrial workers, are thus the least protected and have practically remained outside the influence of legislation.

[1] *Report*, p. 55.

There is no uniformity in the various Provinces about the grant of exemptions, the application of Section 5(1) and the Rules made under the Act with the result that variations in these matters make large inroads on the uniformity of the application of the Act. For instance, in Bombay a creche is required in factories employing over 100 women while in Madras, Bengal and U.P., it is required if more than 50 women are employed. The Bombay and Madras rules require a trained nurse to be in charge of the creche; the Bengal rules require only an experienced woman supervisor while the U.P., rules are silent on the point. The Madras rules require a trained nurse or *Ayah* for every 30 children while the maximum number of children which can be put in charge of a nurse or other women is not specified in the other Provinces.

III—*Payment of Wages Act,* 1936.

The Payment of Wages Act applies to persons employed in any factory and to persons employed by a Railway administration directly or through a contractor. The Act is well observed by the majority of bigger employers except in regard to contract labour. Evasion of the Act in the case of contract labour and of smaller class of establishments is due, apart from the inadequacy of inspection staff, to the inability of the petty employers to maintain records and registers properly which is a pre-requisite of effective administration of the Act. Another obstacle to the proper administration of the Act is the delay in obtaining decisions in the Courts. The Bombay Factory Report for 1938 points out, "that the delay in obtaining decisions in the Courts other than Bombay, where the Authority disposes all such applications with rapidity, have led the inspectors to endeavour to obtain redress by persuasive methods". Some of the employers also evade the Act by splitting up their establishments so as to take them out of the definition of a factory or by interposing a bogus contractor.

Some of the common evasions of the Act are—

(i) Unauthorised deductions,
(ii) Non-recording of overtime wages in the Register of Wages,
(iii) delay in payment of wages,
(iv) Non-payment of bonus,, dearness allowance, etc.,
(v) Non-maintenance of registers, etc.

As the amount of fine permissible under the Act is trifling, several employers resort to suspension of workers for a day or half a day even for slight negligence on their part and to reduction in their pay. In fact, this is the most serious complaint about the working of the Act on the railways. Though it has been held in Mir Mohamed v. Divisional Superintendent, North Western Railway, Karachi, (I.L.R. (1941) Kar. 394) that the reduction of an employee to a lower grade of pay from a higher grade under the existing contract is a "deduction" within the meaning of the Act, the practice still continues. Unauthorised deductions from wages for charity, bad work, etc., are in vogue in different parts of the country, especially in bidi and shellac factories. Though bidi workshops which are governed by the C.P. Unregulated Factories Act come under the Payment of Wages Act, deductions in contravention of Section 10 from wages in the shape of various *chats* or rejection of bidis on the ground of bad workmanship are still common, especially in the Bhandara district. In fact, rejection of bidis for alleged bad workmanship is a

well-known feature of this industry. The rejected bidis are not discarded but sold at a somewhat reduced rate. As the deductions are not treated as fines and utilised for the benefit of the workers, they are only an indirect way of lowering the wage rates. Illegal deductions such as *dasturi goshala, Dharmadan* or *thakurbai* are quite common in shellac factories.

The enforcement of the provisions of section 7(c) relating to deductions for damage to or loss of goods or property leads to considerable hardship to the workers. The words "expressly entrusted for custody" seem to suggest that they cover only such employees as store-keepers and accountants, etc. At present, the employees payment is withheld on the ground that tools or materials given for manufacture have been spoiled. In this connection, the Chief Inspector of Factories. Bihar, points out that in cases of damage to or breakage of any part of a machine or tool while at work by the worker, the full cost of such part or tool is realised from his wages in instalments by the employer. It was found on several railways that more than the cost of the article was recovered or that the amount of damage was debited to more than one person in cases where damaged or lost articles were handled by more than one person.

We came across cases of non-recording of overtime pay in the register of wages and delay in payment of wages, especially in seasonal factories. In ride mills, for instance, wages are not settled even a month in some places and the employers have developed the objectionable practice of maintaining duplicate register—one for actual payment and another for the factory inspector.

Under the Bombay High Court ruling in Civil Revision Application No. 338 of 1938 (B. K. Mazumdar, Manager, Arvind Mills, Ltd., Ahmedabad, vs. K. R. Gadgil, Inspector under the Payment of Wages Act) bonus is not included in wages until it is earned on fulfilling the conditions on which it is granted. Usually the conditions laid down have nothing to do with the year in respect of which the bonus is declared. These conditions are that a workman shall be on the muster roll on the day the bonus is declared and that he should also continue to be on the muster-roll on the dates fixed for payment. All these dates come several months after the year for which the bonus is declared. The system of keeping bonus separae from wages has been the cause of constant friction between the employers and the employees. The workmen complain that the employers themselves take advantage of the conditions imposed by them by dispensing with the services of some of the employees a few days before the bonus is declared and by re-appointing them afterwards. In most concerns, dearness allowance is paid for the days worked. In a few concerns, however, no dearness allowance is paid for the whole month if a worker remains absent for more than a certain number of days. For instance, in the Assam Oil Co., Digboi, and the Attock Oil Co., Rawalpindi, no dearness allowance is paid at all if the worker remains absent for 7 and 2 days in a month respectively. Similarly two dockyards in Calcutta do not pay any dearness allowance if a worker is absent for more than four days in a fortnight. This practice is in contravention of Section 9(2) of the Act.

Other evasion of the Act are in respect of maintenance of registers and display of notices regarding wage rates, dates of wage payment, etc. Such evasions are widely prevalent in seasonal factories. Even in

some large scale factories these provisions of the Act are not paid much attention. The notices displayed are often obsolete and not easily intelligible to the workers.

Generally speaking, contract labour is in a worse position with respect to the Payment of Wages Act. Most of the complaints arise out of absence of any contract of employment. The object of Section 3 seems to be that the contractor should be liable for payment when he undertakes the actual work for the principal employer and engages his own labourers to carry it out. But, in practice, it becomes difficult to find out whether the contractor has undertaken actual work or whether he has contracted merely to supply labour to the owner or principal employer. A majority of labourers are not in a position to know whether they are contractors' men or principal's men for the work goes on on the principals' premises Again, the records maintained by the contractor, if maintained at all, are often defective.

There is no provision in the Act compelling the employer to utilise the fines fund towards sanctioned purposes within a prescribed period. In many cases the fine funds have accumulated to large amounts and few disbursements from them have taken place. Fines imposed in the Port Trust Workshop, Karachi, are credited to the Port Trust Fund in contravention of Section 8 of the Act. The fines imposed on the workers in the Gwalior Potteries are not utilised for the welfare of workers.

There is no explicit provision in the Act, on the lines of Section 63 of the Factories Act or Section 34 of the Indian Mines Act penalising the failure to produce registers by the employer or his representative for inspection. Provisions of Section 5 (4) which require that all payments on account of wages shall be made on a working day, i.e., during working hours are often infringed but the infringement is likely to go unpunished for it cannot be made the subject of an application under the provisions of Section 15.

One method adopted for circumventing the provisions of the Act is, as pointed out by the Madras Government, by insisting on cash security, etc., and making unauthorised deductions therefrom instead of from the earned wages.

The Act has not been applied to mines, although this could have been done by a notification under Section 1(5) by the Provincial Governments concerned. Consequently, certainly malpractices were noticed in the Iron Ore, Mica and Salt mines. There were delays in the payment of wages and fining was pretty heavy in some cases.

IV—*Workmen's Compensation Act.*

This Act and the Maternity Benefit Acts are the only legislative measures of social insurance so far in India. The Workmen's Compensation Act has been amended several times and was improved in several respects in 1933 as a result of the Royal Commission's recommendations.

The working of the Act leaves much to be desired, especially in small establishments and in mofussil areas where attempts are commonly made to avoid payment of compensation to the workers by one means or another. The bigger companies generally observe the provisions of the Act although even here it appears that minor injuries often go unreported. There

is avoidable delay in the disposal of applications in the mofussil as judicial officers are inclined to stick more to judicial formalities and procedure than to the observance of the essence and spirit of the Act and as other Officers who are appointed as Commissioners are too busy with other duties to dispose of the cases under the Act expeditiously. There are workers, particularly in districts, who are not even aware of the existence of the Act and there are many others who have only a vague idea of their rights under it. Adequate steps are not taken either by Government, employers or trade unions to educate the workers in this regard. Special efforts are needed to familiarise the workers with their rights under the Act. Under the existing law, mere negligence on the part of the worker does not disentitle him to compensation, though it does if he acts in contravention of a specified order. This fact is not generally known to working classes. Exhibition of the main provisions of the Act in Indian languages in a conspicuous place in every establishment which comes under the Act and giving each worker a copy of the summary in his language as soon as he is employed would be useful. The Labour Welfare Officers should make it a part of their work to hold periodical educative meetings where information on the benefits offered by the various Labour Acts, including the Workmen's Compensation Act, should be given. This will help no doubt, but if education is given by Trade Unions on the lines of the Textile Labour Association of Ahmedabad, the results will be highly satisfactory.

No agencies are generally available to render legal or other assistance to the workers in securing compensation due to them. A worker is sometimes faced with the embarassing alternative of pressing his claim for compensation and losing his job afterwards or of accepting whatever is offered by his employer, but with the assurance of continuing in service. Well-intention Inspectors of Factories often intervene in case of accidents and secure some compensation, though this is no part of their legitimate duties. It is desirable that the inspecting staff should be empowered, as under the Payment of Wages Act, to take up cases of workers who have not been paid due compensation by the employers. A worker finds it extremely difficult to secure legal advice on account of his poverty with the result that he is sometimes forced by the fear of not getting anything to accept a much smaller amount than what is legally due to him. We agree with the Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee that free legal advice at the cost of the State should be provided to the injured workman. Similarly, it is essential that the injured worker should be assisted free of charge in getting his loss of capacity scientifically assessed by medical experts. Appointment of a panel of qualified doctors by Government for the purpose of giving free medical advice to the injured worker and to the Commissioner of Workmen's Compensation would considerably help the workers in getting their due compensation.

The Act has been adopted by the industrially important States, but its working is far from satisfactory. Even in Mysore, according to the Memorandum furnished by the Commissioner of Labour, "the Act requires radical improvements in favour of the workmen who do not derive as much benefit from its provisions as was intended by the sponsors of the Act, in view of the numerous technicalities introduced in it which are working great hardship to ignorant work-people and the employers are benefiting therefrom at the expense of the workmen..... The intentions

of the Legislature are not fulfilled in practice in view of the provisions therein which cannot be strictly followed mainly owing to the ignorance of the workmen".

In this connection mention may be made of the Textile Labour Association, Ahmedabad, which is doing a real service to the cause of labour. The success of the Act in Ahmedabad is entirely due to this Association. Almost all the cases coming before the Court are handled by this Association even though the workmen in some cases do not happen to be its members. In Bombay City, no Trade Union as such can be credited with having done anything in the matter of securing compensation. There are, however, two Claims Agencies in Bombay which assist workmen by advice or by undertaking their cases on moderate fees and their assistance is very useful to poor and needy workmen. The Bombay Claims Agency specially has done very good work in giving publicity to the Act and securing compensation for poor workmen.

These Agencies, however, represent a particular type of labourers and not the whole class of labourers and it is really necessary that Trade Unions should take up this work as one of their important aims and objects. There is no regular agency for assisting the workmen in Bengal and Madras. In Karachi, there is a Workmen's Compensation Aid Society registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act for aiding the injured workmen, but it does not function effectively.

The majority of the bigger concerns insure their liability for payment of workmen's compensation and some others have their own funds to meet these liabilities. The Millowners' Association, Bombay, has its Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association. It is generally the small employers who do not insure and, when accidents occur, endeavour to avoid their liability. The number of cases where workmen have not been able to secure compensation due to the insolvency of the employers is fairly large. Compulsory insurance has been suggested by some Provincial Governments and most of the big employers' organisations like the Bombay Millowners' Association, the Indian Jute Mills Association and the Indian Engineering Association.

Compulsory insurance, however, can be of two kinds, viz., company insurance and State insurance. In India, private company insurance has not yet assumed any large proportions. In view of this fact, and also in view of the universal tendency to prefer State insurance, so as to avoid all possibilities of costly and endless litigation, we feel that any experimentation in the direction of private company insurance on a compulsory basis should be avoided. This issue has been discussed at the Tripartite Labour Conference and the general opinion seems to have been in favour of State insurance. In pursuance of that decision, the Government of India have already under consideration legislation on the lines of State insurance.

Section 10B of the Act requires only such employers, as is required by any law (e.g., Section 30 of the Factories Act) to give notice to any authority of any accident occurring on his premises which results in death, to report to the Commissioner all fatal accidents if they take place on his premises. At present, there is no obligation on the employer to report to the Commissioner non-fatal injuries even when they give rise to claims for compensation. The Commissioner has, therefore, no means of knowing whether claims for compensation in non-fatal accidents have been made

or, if made, have been fairly dealt with. Further, he has no power, under the Act, to initiate action *suo motu* on the basis of any information which may have reached him in respect of such accidents. We agree with the Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee that all accidents should be immediately reported to the Labour Commissioner followed at an early date by a statement showing the amount of compensation paid for each accident and where the liability is disclaimed a brief statement of reasons in support of it. The Labour Commissioner may then take action, if necessary, to secure the satisfaction of just claims.

Though most of the big employers have arrangements for rendering free medical assistance to the injured workmen, no such facilities exist in the numerous small concerns in this country. There is also no legislative provision for free medical treatment and for the rehabilitation of the injured workmen. With better medical assistance and facilities, the workman stands to gain as the incapacity is either wholly cured or reduced to a large extent. The employers also stand to gain in as much as the amount of compensation payable by them is considerably reduced. Even if the workman has spent some amount and thereby obtained substantial relief by taking private treatment, the employers often refuse to pay such expenses.

As regards the various industries surveyed by the Committee, it may be stated that though the Act applies to mines, *uparchalla* workings in mica mines do not come under the Act in view of the proviso to Schedule II (v) though the incidence of accidents in them appears to be quite considerable. As most of the mica mines are inaccessible, a large number of accidents which occur go unreported. What happens in most cases is that the victim is paid a little money and is asked to stay away until he has recovered completely. In the Iron Ore mines, although companies observe the provisions of the Act, it was noticed that the contractors often paid compensaion at a rate lower than that prescribed under the Act. The accidents also are not always reported. As regards manganese mines, though Sandur State has a Workmen's Compensation Act, the workers as well as the management were ignorant of it. In the Gold Mines in Mysore State the Mysore Workmen's Compensation Act is properly observed. While under the British Indian Act, half-monthly payments for temporary disablement are payable commencing from the eighth day of accident, in Mysore they are payable from the date of accident, provided the period of disablement exceeds seven days. The Assam Oil Co. treats accident cases generously by making *ex gratia* payments over and above those prescribed under the Act.

In the glass factories, the commonest accidents are those arising from cuts and burns most of which heal up within the 'waiting period' of 7 days and the employers escape all liability. In some printing presses, it is complained that non-fatal injuries are not reported and that the workers are dismissed to escape liability for the payment of compensation. Though there is the admitted danger of lead-poisoning to which compositors and distributors are exposed, only very few cases of lead-poisoning came to light in our enquiry which suggests that such cases are not recorded and that the symptoms are very often not diagnosed. In the chemical industry some concerns claim that they pay more than what the Act requires them to do. The Swastik Oil Mills in Bombay, for example, pay the first fourteen days' wages as compensation to every injured person, if he

is unable to resume his duties within that period. The Imperial Chemical Industries pays the total salary lost due to accident which in many cases amounts to more than the compensation sanctioned under the Act. On the other hand, the workers in Alkali Chemical Corporation forfeit their wages for the number of hours they are rendered unfit for work due to gas attacks. Technically, the company is not liable to pay compensation in such cases, while deductions for non-working in such cases, especially when the wages are low, seem to be unfair inspite of the existing provisions of the Act The working of the Act is not as satisfactory in the Central P. W. D. as it should be, especially in the case of contract labour. Contractors sometimes pay a smaller sum than what is due under the Act and purport to take a clear receipt from the workman, while in some cases it is not paid to all. Besides, most of the workers hail from distant places and Commissioners find it difficult to trace their whereabouts, as they usually migrate to their homes immediately after the occurrence, leaving no address. If there were a general system of maintaining service cards, these difficulties would not arise.

In the seasonal factories such as rice mills and cotton ginning and baling factories, the Act is infructuous in a large measure, due to the seasonal, if not casual, nature of employment; accidents are hushed up, or if that cannot be done, payment is made of a pittance by way of lump sum settlement. Where, however, as in the rice mills in Orissa and cotton ginning and baling factories in the Central Provinces employers have insured their liability for payment of compensation, there is no evasion and managements help workers to recover compensation.

V—*Maternity Benefit Acts.*

The first provincial law in this field was the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act of 1929 and this was followed by the C. P. Maternity Benefit Act of 1930. As a result of the Royal Commission's recommendation on the subject, Maternity Benefit Acts were passed in Madras, U. P., Bengal, Punjab and Assam. The Central Government also passed a Mines Maternity Benefit Act in 1941 extending maternity benefits to women employed in mines. The Act which came into force in December 1942 is the first instance of a Central measure dealing with maternity benefits. The Bombay Act was adopted with some modifications by Ajmer-Merwara in 1933 and by Delhi in 1937. Sind adopted it at the time of separation and amended it in 1939. The Bengal Maternity Benefits (Tea Estates) Bill, 1941, was introduced by the Bengal Government with a view to regulating maternity benefits for women workers in tea factories and plantations in accordance with the recommendations of the Royal Commission. The Bill has been passed by the local Legislative Council but is still before the Legislative Assembly. A draft Maternity Benefit Bill is under the consideration of the Bihar Government.

A comparative table showing the qualifying period, maximum period of benefits and the rate of benefits in the various Acts is given below:—

TABLE 36.

Qualifying period, maximum period of Benefit and rate of Benefits in the various Provinces and in Mines.

Province.	Year in which the Act was passed.	Qualifying period (Months).	Maximum period for maternity benefits (Weeks).	Rate of maternity benefits.
Bombay ...	1929	9	8	8 annas a day or average daily wages whichever is less. But in the Cities of Bombay and Ahmedabad 8 annas day.
C. P. & Berar ...	1930	9	8	8 annas a day or average wages whichever is less.
Madras ...	1934	240 days (8 months within a period of one year.	7	8 annas a day.
U. P. ...	1938	6	8	8 annas a day or average daily wages whichever is greater.
Bengal ...	1939	9	8	Ditto.
Punjab ...	1943	9	60 days	12 annas a day.
Mines (under the Indian Mines Maternity Benefit Act).	1941	6	8	12 annas a day for surface workers.
			16	Rs. 6 a week for underground workers.
Assam ...	1944	150 days (*nil* in the case of immigrant woman).	8	1. In plantations Re. 1 per week for 4 weeks before delivery and Rs. 1-4-0 per week for 4 weeks after delivery, provided the total cash payment is Rs. 14. 2. In other employments Rs. 2 per week or average weekly wage or salary whichever is greater.

The industrially advanced States have also passed Maternity Benefit Acts which are based on the legislation in British India. The Mysore Maternity Benefit Act, 1937 and the Indore Maternity Benefit Act, 1936, follow the general principles of the Bombay Act. The Bombay Act was also adopted by the Baroda State in 1936 with certain modifications. The rate of benefit in Baroda is As. 6 against As. 8 in the Bombay Act. The Gwalior-Maternity Benefit Act of 1942 provides the benefit for the maximum period of 8 weeks at the rate of the woman's average daily earnings calculated on the total wages earned on the days when full-time work was done during a period of three months immediately preceding the date on which the notice was given by her. Cochin followed the Madras Act with some modifications in 1938. The rate of benefit in the Cochin Act is only As. 3 against As. 8, the qualifying period is 12 months as against 240 days and the maximum period for maternity benefit is 8 weeks in Cochin against 7 in the Madras Act.

The main defects of maternity benefits legislation are that it is neither uniform nor universal, that there is no provision for free medical aid before, during and after confinement except in a few provinces like Sind and Assam, and that there is no provision for preventing an employer from dismissing a woman worker on the first sign of pregnancy except in a few provinces like Madras and Bengal[1]. In Madras, no notice of dismissal, given without sufficient cause by an employer to a woman within a period of 5 months before her confinement, shall have the effect of depriving her of maternity benefit, while in Bengal the prohibited period is 6 months. The U. P. Act and the Assam Act have one or two special features which may be mentioned. The U. P. Act grants in addition to the ordinary benefit a bonus of Rs. 5 to a woman worker who avails herself of the services of a qualified midwife or a trained woman health visitor at the time of her confinement as also 3 weeks' leave with wages in cases of miscarriage. Women workers with children less than a year old are also granted two extra intervals of half an hour each every day for feeding the children. These additional intervals count as work and full pay is payable for the same. Under the Assam Act, when a woman declines to accept free medical treatment provided by the employer, no maternity benefit is admissible.

When the Acts were first put into force a number of employers dismissed their women workers but, broadly speaking, there is an improvement in this matter. Employers in many cases still, however, show a preference for the employment of unmarried girls, widows and women past child-bearing age. The Textile Labour Association, Ahmedabad, reports a case where an unmarried woman was discharged after her marriage for no fault on her part, the management stating that it had given her to understand at the time of employment that she would be discharged after marriage.

Many women workers do not claim maternity benefits on account of their ignorance. Though the Royal Commission recommended (Report p. 265) that the administration of the Act should be wherever possible, entrusted to women factory inspectors, no such appointment has been made in most of the provinces. The women workers usually find it difficult to comply with the following requirements of the law mainly due to their ignorance:—

(1) To give timely notice to the employer.

[1]Cf. Prof. Adarkar's *Report on Health Insurance*, p. 205.

(2) To put in the qualifying period of service.
(3) To resume duty immediately after four weeks of the confinement.
(4) To obtain the birth certificate for claiming the benefits.

The Indian Jute Mills Association states in its reply, "the Act has been successful to a limited extent. It has been found from experience and enquiry at a number of mills that very few women are able to enjoy the four weeks relief prior to delivery under the Act. A number of women take two months leave before confinement and are paid for 4 weeks only but in the case of those women who cannot afford to do so, it happens that they have premature delivery (due to the strain of long hours of standing, etc.) and therefore very rarely are they able to get 4 weeks leave with pay prior to delivery".

The All-India Trade Union Congress states in its reply, "The latest example is the dismissal of various pregnant women workers by mine-owners in Gudur District upon representations made by the Mica Miners' Union to pay them maternity benefit under the Mines Maternity Benefit Act." Some others refuse to grant leave to pregnant women even for casual sickness or such other cause and then hold that there has been no continuous qualifying period of service. Breaks in continuity of service due to strikes, "playing off" or casual absence should not deprive a woman worker of her maternity benefits. On the other hand, it must be mentioned that some enlightened employers often extend the benefit to cases which have not fulfilled all the conditions laid down in the law. Similarly, although there are no Maternity Benefit Acts in any plantation areas, except Assam where it has been enforced only since September 1945, the planters generally give the benefit of varying amounts partly in cash and partly in kind. At the instance of the Bombay Government, member-mills of the Bombay Millowners' Association and some other employers in the Bombay Province have been paying from 1942 a surcharge of 50 per cent of the total amount payable as maternity benefit for the duration of the war and 3 months thereafter. Although the Maternity Benefit Act does not apply to municipal labour, some of the municipalities pay benefits and grant leave.

The cash benefits payable and the period for which they are payable are not adequate. The Madras Gogernment states that the benefit of 8 annas per day may be raised to 12 annas per day or the average daily earning of a worker whichever is higher. The Bengal Government considers that the amount of benefit should be adjusted to the cost of living obtaining at the time of claim, although the payment should be basically a flat rate and not dependent upon a calculated average of previous earnings. The Chief Inspector of Factories, C. P. & Berar, suggests that provision may be made for payment of benefit at enhanced rates than average wages if recommended by medical authorities on grounds of health. The All-India Trade Union Congress suggests that the cash benefits should not be less than the actual average wage of the employee and that the minimum period for which benefits are paid should be 6 weeks before and 6 weeks after the confinement. 'The Indian Jute Mills Association considers that both the cash benefits and the period for which they are payable are not adequate and that the period of 4 weeks with pay proceeding delivery should be altered to 6 weeks at least, if not 8 weeks. We suggest that the benefit should not be less than the actual

average wage of the women and that the period should be extended to 12 weeks, that is, six weeks before and six weeks after confinement as recommended in the I. L. O. convention.

A few big concerns like cotton and jute mills and a few tea estates have maternity clinics where ante-and post-natal treatment is given to women workers. But on the whole maternity clinics for women workers may be said to be non-existent. The Indian Jute Mills Association aptly states, "in the absence of compulsory and free maternity clinics, expectant mothers are not given the care and attention they merit, and the objects of the Maternity Benefit Act are not fully secured, viz., healthy babies and mothers".

Evasion of the Act by discharging pregnant women workers is particularly noticeable in glass and match factories and in tanneries. In some of the smaller tanneries of Cawnpore it was found that the names of women workers were not entered in the registers. There were also complaints that women were employed through contractors in order to evade the Act. In Coir Mats and Matting industry in Travancore no maternity benefit was paid in several factories, not because no case had arisen, but because the women workers were, until recently, unconscious of their rights.

The working of the Act is most defective in seasonal factories, like rice mills, and cotton ginning and baling, etc. The Act is not at all respected in the rice mills, in spite of the fact that there are large numbers of women employed everywhere. The employers do not maintain any service registers and refuse to pay the benefit on the pretext that the women worker has not satisfied the qualifying period of 9 months. The main loop-hole in seasonal factories is that the qualifying period is not fulfilled and we suggest that it might be reduced to four months.

Assurance of the benefit to women employed through contractors depends to a large extent upon the accurate maintenance by them of the Registers of Workers and Wages under the Factories Act and the payment of Wages Act respectively, and until that is secured contract labour will be deprived of the protection of the Act.

VI—*Plantation Legislation.*

The early legislative measures taken in connection with the recruitment of labour from distant places to the Assam tea gardens were more protective of planters than of labour. The first protective legislation was the Assam Labour Emigration Act, 1901. Right of arrest by planters, recruitment by contractors and the indenture system were gradually abolished by amending the Act in 1908 and 1915 but the last vestige of penal contract disappeared from the Indian Statute-book only in 1931. The Act of 1901 was repealed by the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act, 1932, which was passed as a result of the Royal Commission's recommendations. This Act now regulates recruitment to the Assam Tea gardens. The main objects of the Act are to control recruitment and forwarding of assisted emigrants to the gardens and to grant a greater measure of freedom in the system of recruitment than had hitherto been enjoyed by the industry. It also confers on the assisted emigrants the right of repatriation at the cost of the gardens after three years' service. Thus the Act, strictly speaking, is not a piece of labour legislation but is really an emigration legislation. It applies only

to assisted emigrant labourers who go to the gardens for work. Of nearly 12 lakhs of persons living in the tea gardens in Assam, the great majority are not covered by the provisions of the Act.

No child, i.e., a person under 16 years of age, can be recruited to work on a tea garden unless it is accompanied by a parent or other relative. A married woman living with her husband can only be assisted to emigrate with his consent. The forwarding of assisted emigrants is alone subject to control in areas where a notificataion under Section 16 has been issued. Such areas which are called 'controlled emigration areas' become 'restricted recruitment areas' when a notification under Section 26 is issued and then the methods and personnel employed in recruiting are controlled almost all the recruiting areas have been declared to be controlled emigration areas but no such areas has been so far declared as a restricted recruitment area.

The working of the Act is supervised by the Controller of Emigrant Labour who is an employee of the Government of India. His principal duties are to enforce the provisions relating to repatriation from Assam and to supervise the forwarding routes and recruiting. He has no control over conditions of labour and life in the tea gardens in Assam. The provisions of the Act and of the rules thereunder are properly observed but a few cases of evasion occasionally take place. Cases of illegal and fraudulent recruitment are mostly reported by the local forwarding agents to the authorities exercising the powers of the Controller. Such cases ranged from 8 to 22 in the six years from 1939 to 1944. Whatever may have been the conditions in the early days, the emigrants are now generally aware of their rights under the Act—particularly the right to repatriation. An emigrant labourer can, under Section 14 of the Act, by agreement with his employer postpone his exercise of the right of repatriation or may waive it conditionally or unconditionally, but no such agreement shall be valid unless it is in writing and in the prescribed form and has been made not more than one month before the right of repatriation arises. The number of persons who postponed their rights of repatriation by executing agreements were 9,224 in 1939, 12,661 in 1940, 14,937 in 1941, 8,008 in 1942, 9,713 in 1943 and 7,842 in 1944. The Government of India have not yet prescribed the authority before whom the agreement is to be signed, as contemplated by the proviso to section 14 (1) of the Act. In the absence of such a prescribed authority, the agreement is made before the manager and it is likely that at least some of the labourers may be inducee to sign it without knowing its full implication. Where, however, a right to repatriation arises in respect of a widow, an agreement by the widow has to be ratified, as required by Rule 60 (1) of the Government of India Rules, by the District Magistrate or other Magistrate appointed by him in this behalf. Some of the managers have been appointed as Honorary Magistrates for this purpose and it is not unlikely that some of them ratify the agreement as a matter of routine.

If a repatriated labourer returns within the next two years he is not eligible for repatriation. This restriction of the right of repatriation seems unnecessary. In fact, recently when difficulties were experienced in recruitment, the employers themselves volunteered to extent the right of repatriation to such labourers also as had worked in the tea estates before. There have been occasionally cases of labourers who have died *en route* to Assam. The families of such labourers do not

have right of repatriation as this right arises only after the labourer takes employment in a tea estate, vide Section 9 of the Act. While the Act regulates the routes, conditions of travel and arrangements for food of labourers proceeding to tea estates, no such provisions exist for repatriated labourers. It would seem that while every care is taken to see that the recruited labourer reaches the estate safely, no interest is taken at all in seeing whether he returns home safely after his work in the tea estates or not. There is no provision in the Act for regulating accommodation, sanitation, water supply, medical treatment, wages, hours of work, educational facilities, rest and recreation and other welfare arrangements for labourers employed in the tea estates. While all Local Forwarding Agencies are requird to maintain a register showing the number of persons recruited, accomodated and forward in a day, no such regiter is required to be maintained by the forwarding depots *en route* to Assam. It is, therefore, difficult to know whether, in any of these forwarding depots, persons have been acommodated in excess of the provision made. It may sometimes happen that labourers from the neighbouring districts of Bengal are taken to tea estates in Assam and entertained as local labourers, even though Bengal is a recruiting area and cess is payable on labourers from Bengal taken to tea estates in Assam. At present, a manager is required to maintain a register only in respect of labourers covered by the Act. If a register is maintained to show also the details of the non-emigrant labourers employed in tea estates, it will be possible to find out whether any labourer who should have been treated as an emigrant labourer has been treated as a non-emigrant or not.

The Jalpaiguri Labour Act, 1912, provides merely for the keeping of registers and the submission of returns about health, sickness and mortality by employers of labour in Jalpaiguri district. Under this Act, an annual report is submitted by the Civil Surgeon, Jalpaiguri, on matters relating to sickness and medical services amongst the labourers in the Dooars.

Plantations in India are thus practically immune from any legislative control as far as regulation of labour conditions in them is concerned. The only legislative measure in the whole of India for the direct control of labour conditions on plantations is taken by the State of Cochin by framing rules for conserving the health and protecting the interests of labourers employed on plantations in the State. The rules came into force on the 1st May 1937, and apply to estates which have at least ten acres under plantation crop or employ at least 20 labourers on any one day in the year. They prohibit the employment of children under 10 and of women and children between 6 p.m. and 6 a.m. They provide for a standard housing accommodation, free medical aid and anti-malarial measures. They also provide for the inspection of the estates, at least once a year by the Director of Public Health and the District Magistrate or their deputies. The rules appear to be properly enforced. The standard of minimum housing requirements required by rule 18 to be drawn up within two years has not, however, yet been drawn up.

VII—*Mining Legislation.*

As the most important class of mines, namely, the coal mines, could not be surveyed by the Committee, it is proposed to deal briefly with the working of the mining legislation in Mica, Iron Ore, Manganese and Gold Mines, which have been surveyed by us.

The Indian Mines Act is inadequate in respect of provisions relating to labour. As in the case of the Factories Act, the inspection of mines is also inadequate. Again, it appears that the Mines Inspectors mainly look to the adoption of safety measures and not to the other provisions of the Act relating to health, hours of work, etc.

The Mica mines are subject to the provisions of the Indian Mines Act, 1923. Though, according to a strict interpretation of section 3 (f) which defines a mine, *uparchalla* workings (surface pits) come within the scope of the Act, they are practically excluded from it in view of Notification No. M-1051, dated the 1st October 1935. These workings which are estimated to produce about a quarter of the total output are thus subject to no rules and regulations whatsoever. A large number of *uparchalla* pits would have been declared as mines if their depth or employment figures were properly checked. But the present inspectorate is too inadequate to make such investigations and the inaccessibility of the Mica mines makes surprise visits impossible. In contravention of the provisions of the Act regarding employment of women and children, both women and children appear to be employed underground in Mica mines. The Act prohibits employment or even presence of children below 15 years of age in any part of the mine which is below ground, and further provides that "young persons" between 15 and 17 years of age can only be allowed to be present in any part of the mine which is below ground only if he has a certificate of fitness from a qualified medical practitioner. Both these sections are infringed. Workers collude with the employers in the employment of women and children in order to augment their family income as their own wages are basically low. Section 18 requires that at every mine to which this section has been made applicable by the Central Government, the owner shall keep ready certain medical equipment. Except in the bigger mines, not even first-aid boxes are kept. Register of employees prescribed by section 28 was maintained only in a few mines. Elsewhere either no register is maintained and attendance is recorded on loose sheets, or if a register is maintained, attendance is not shown properly. So far as Indian States are concerned, mica mines are mainly located in Udaipur and Jaipur States. No legislation has yet been passed to regulate labour conditions in these mines, although it is understood that Udaipur intends to establish shortly a set of rules on the lines of the Indian Mines Act. Working conditions in these mines are, however, better than in the regulated British Indian areas, thanks to the active supervision of mining methods by engineers and geologists of the two States.

The Indian Mines Act applies to Iron Ore Mines in British India; the Mayurbhanj State has its own Mines Order of 1937. Company or *Sarkari* labour generally forces better than contract labour, so far as the labour provisons of the Act and Order are concerned. Employment of children under 15 and of adolescents (between 15 and 17) without doctor's certificate in contravention of the law is frequent. No shelters are provided for miners; adequate supply of fresh drinking water is not available and no abstracts of the Mines Act are exhibited in vernacular languages in prominent places.

As regards manganese mines, latrine and urinal accommodation is not provided in the mines in the Central Provinces and it is understood that the Provincial Government have not yet prescribed the kind and scale of latrines and urinals to be installed in them. The register of employees

was not properly kept in several mines. The working of manganese mines in the Sandur State is not controlled by any legislation except the Workmen's Compensation Act.

The Mysore Mines Act, 1906, regulates the working conditions in the gold mines at Kolar. The Act provides for the health and safety of workers in the mines and for the maintenance of an inspecting staff. The daily and weekly hours of work have, however, not been statutorily laid down, though the actual hours of work are 8 per day both for underground and surface workers. The Act is very efficiently administered and any suggestions made by the Inspectorate are carried out by the management irrespective of the cost involved. As a result, the incidence of accidents in the mines has gone down in recent years.

Oil fields are given complete exemption from the operation of the Indian Mines Act which would otherwise apply to them with the result that workers employed in the oil fields are subject to no statutory control in the matter of hours of work and health and to few statutory regulations in respect of safety. The Royal Commission recommended that the protection of the law in regard to rest days, hours, health and safety should be extended to workers on the oil fields. Though the recommendation was accepted in principle by the Government of India, no action has yet been taken to implement it.

VIII—*Transport Legislation.*

The Indian Railways Act.—Until 1930, there was no statutory regulation of the conditions of work of railway servants except those employed in railway workshops which are covered by the Indian Factories Act. By the Indian Railways (Amendment) Act, 1930, a new Chapter (Chapter VI-A) was added to the Indian Railways Act, 1890, dealing with the hours of work and periods of rest of railway servants in conformity with the obligations which the Government of India undertook when they ratified the Hours of Work (Industry) Convention and the Weekly Rest (Industry) Convention in 1921 and 1923 respectively. Hours of Employment Regulations which regulate the hours of work of Railway servants and provide for the payment of overtime allowance and the grant of compulsory rest consist of Chapter VI-A of the Indian Railways Act, the Rules made by the Governor General in Council under Section 71E of the Act and the subsidiary instructions issued by the Railway Board. The Rules made by the Governor General in Council under Section 71E are known as the Railway Servants' Hours of Employment Rules, 1931, and provide that the provisions of Chapter VI-A shall not apply to (a) running staff (b) watchmen, watermen, sweepers and gate-keepers, (c) persons in positions of supervision or management or in confidential employment, (d) persons employed in factories or mines coming within the scope of the Factories and Mines Acts. The exclusion of the staff in the first three categories does not, however, absolve the Supervisor of Railway Labour—Now the Chief Labour Commissioner (Central)—and his inspectors from watching their conditions of work. All Class I Federal Railways are covered by the Regulations now. They do not apply to Class II and III Railways or to Company-managed railways in which working conditions are still under no statutory control. The most vital question for railway labour under the Regulations is the question of classification as 'continuous' and 'essentially intermittent'. 'Continuous' workers may be employed for 60 hours a week on an average in a month while 'essentially

intermittent' workers may be employed for 84 hours in a week. Again 'continuous' workers are alone entitled to a rest of not less than 24 hours each week commencing on Sunday. The power of declaring that the employment of a railway servant is essentially intermittent is vested in the Head of a railway and in cases of dispute the decision of the Railway Board is final. The Supervisor of Railway Labour brings border-line cases and those which seem obviously to involve a breach of the law to the notice of the Railway Administration for reviewing or rectifying the classification, as the case may be. The Head of a railway is empowered to make exemptions from the provisions of law which relate to hours of work and periods of rest and this power can be delegated to subordinate authorities. Delegations are generally to 'the senior subordinate official on the spot' which in some cases means no more than a gangmate as pointed out by the Supervisor of Railway Labour in his Annual Report on the working of the Hours of Employment Regulations for the year 1939-40. Detailed records of all cases of exemption are not always kept by the subordinate officials with the result that little can be done in cases of alleged failure to pay overtime to the staff involved. Rule 9 of the Railway Servants' Hours of Employment Rules, 1931, requires railway administrations to make known either by duty lists, rosters, or other documents placed in conspicuous places, the duration of hours of employment and the incidence of periods of rest but quite a large number of employees were found working outside their rostered hours. Most of these cases relate to the Goods Staff whose complaint that it is not possible to complete the work allotted to them within the rostered hours has been found, in many cases, to be substantially correct. Though this evil is as old as the Regulations and though it has been often brought to the notice of the railway administrations by the Supervisor, little has been done to improve matters.

The Indian Dock Labourers Act, 1934.—This Act, passed in 1934 for the protection of port workers in pursuance of the Protection against Accidents (Dockers) Convention (Revised) 1932, has not yet been brought into force.

IX—*Bombay Industrial Disputes Act*, 1938.

This Provincial Act is a radical departure from the previous legislation on the subject of industrial disputes. The main object of the Act is to make all strikes and lock-outs illegal without notice and without utilising the machinery contained in the Act for conciliation and arbitration. It thus extends to all industrial disputes and strikes the principle of making strikes without notice illegal which applied only to public utility concerns under the Trade Disputes Act, 1929. The Act has been applied to the cotton textile industry in the Bombay Province, to the woollen textile industry in the Bombay City and Local Area of Thana and to the silk textile industry in the Bombay City. It requires the employers in the event of an industrial dispute to deal with the representatives of the two types of unions mentioned in it. Thus the Act secures one of the important purposes of recognition by requiring employers to deal with these unions in conciliation proceedings. The Provincial Government is authorised to appoint a Labour Officer for safeguarding the interests of workers and for appearing on their behalf in a dispute when they do not elect their own representative. An outstanding feature of the Act is the provision

for framing standing orders for regulating the relations between employers and employees.

The Act provides an elaborate machinery including an Industrial Court for the settlement of disputes by conciliation or by voluntary arbitration. It was amended in 1941 with a view to making arbitration compulsory in certain cases.

Figures about the working of the Act are available for the first three years of its existence, namely, 1940-42, in a publication of the Bombay Millowners' Association. During this period, 570 notices of change were given, 429 by employers and 141 by workers. 134 notices of change related to change of shifts and working hours, 212 related to retrenchment and stoppages of machinery, 173 to wages, efficiency schemes, allowance and bonus and the remaining 51 to miscellaneous matters. Out of the 570 notices, 338 resulted in agreements, 63 in settlements and in the case of 31, the conciliation proceedings failed. Out of the remaining 128, 23 were pending and 115 were not proceeded with or were withdrawn.

During the same period, 44 applications were filed with the industrial Court, 21 by the employers, 22 by the workers and one by the Government Labour Officer. The orders passed by the Industrial Court in connection with 41 applications were entirely favourable to the managements concerned and only in three cases the orders were unfavourable to them.

Though the Act has not succeeded in preventing lightning strikes altogether, it has been successful in considerably reducing their number and in avoiding stoppages of work in a fairly large number of cases. Its main merit is that employers are prevented from changing conditions of employment, unless it is for the better, without giving notices of change and, in the absence of an agreement with the workers, without placing their proposals before a Conciliator.

The Government of Madras, U. P. and Bengal have under contemplation draft bills on the lines of this Act. The Mysore Labour Act, 1942, which is a noticeable piece of labour legislation in Indian States today is based on the Bombay Act and provides for the statutory recognition of each Association of workers immediately it is registered.

X—*General Labour Legislation*

The protection given to children by the Factories Act of 1934, as amended by the Factories (Amendment) Act of 1940 has been reinforced by the provisions of the Children (Pledging of Labour) Act of 1933, the Employment of Children Act of 1938 and the Employment of Children (Amendment) Act of 1939.

The Children (Pledging of Labour) Act is designed to stop the malpractice of pledging of labour of young children by their parents to employers which was found by the Royal Commission to be prevalent in carpet factories in Amritsar and in the cotton mills in Ahmedabad. No cases of pledging child labour came to notice in these centres, but a few cases were found in *bidi* workshops in Madras City, Vellore and in Mysore State.

The object of the Employment of Children Act is to raise the minimum age of child employed in the handling of goods on railways and at ports to 15 years. The Royal Commission found that some children below 12

(which was the minimum age of employment under an Act) were employed in the coaling of ships in one port and recommended that the minimum age be raised from 12 to 14 years. We did not come across any instance of a child under 15 employed in the handling of goods on railways or at ports.

The Employment of Children (Amendment) Act prescribes that no child, who has not completed his 12th year shall be employed in any of the following 10 occupations mentioned in the schedule:—

(1) bidi-making, (2) carpet-making, (3) cement manufacture (bagging of cement), (4) Cloth printing, dyeing and weaving, (5) manufacture of matches, explosives and fire works, (6) Mica cutting and splitting, (7) Shellac manufacture, (8) Soap manufacture, (9) tanning and (10) wool cleaning.

Our *ad hoc* surveys covered five of the above industries. Although the employment of children has gone down in *bidi* workshops since the time of the Royal Commission, a fairly large number of them are employed in South India, Bengal and in some parts of the Bombay Province. Children below 12 were not found in any carpet factory in British India and this may be due to their finding more lucrative employment elsewhere in war time. In cement manufacture also, no instances of the infringement of the Act came to our notice. The Employment of children below 12 was specially noticeable in several match factories in the Ramnad district. The Act is flagrantly disregarded in the mica cutting and splitting workshops, in the smaller tanneries and in shellac factories. Surprising though it may seem, child labour was found even in the Government mica factory at Pachemba in Bihar.

The names of children are not always shown in the registers and they make themselves scarce as soon as an outsider comes to the factory. In some of the match factories in the Ramnad district, young children of about the age of 8 or 10, particularly girls, were seen running helter-skelter with trays on their heads when one of our colleagues visited these factories. It transpired that these youngsters were all uncertified children and were trained to pretend on the appearance of the Factory Inspector or any other visitor that they were only carrying the trays for the work to be done by the elders at homes. Apart from the fact that the inspectorate, whether regular or ex-officio, is too inadequate to check the infringement of the Act, the parents themselves who like to take their children to work with them in these establishments in order to augment their meagre earnings, actively assist in the breach of the law. The employers, too, like to engage child labour as it is cheap. The extension of educational and other facilities for children is one of the pre-requisite of the successful control of their employment.

Apart from the industries to which the Act applies, it may be necessary to extend it to certain others. For instance, we found that small children were employed in the bangle manufacture section of the glass industry at Ferozabad. They were found working near the *chulas* in dingy workshops and their health and general physical development were extremely unsatisfactory. Several children were found with burns and cuts on their bodies which were covered with bandages. They were made to work in spite of such handicaps, often as a result of an understanding between employers and parents.

As a result of the Royal Commission's recommendations legislative measures have been taken in the last decade for protecting the wages of industrial workers from attachmen , preventing besetting of industrial workers and for liquidating their debts. Under the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908, the wages of labourers were, and are, exempt from attachment. In 1937, the Code was amended so as to exempt from attachment any salary to the extent of the first hundred rupees and one half of the remainder of such salary, although the Royal Commission had recommended (Report p. 232) that the salary and wages of workmen receiving less than Rs. 300 a month should be entirely exempted from attachment.

The Royal Commission found that there were "many moneylenders who prey upon workers and depend upon the threat of violence rather than of the processes of law. The *lathi* is the only court to which they appeal, and they may be seen waiting outside the factory gate on pay-day ready to pounce on their debtors as they emerge".[1] This position has not materially changed even today. The Government of India decided that no central legislation was called for to deal with besetting of industrial establishments. But at their suggestion, the Bengal Workmen's Protection Act was passed in 1935. It provides that whoever loiters in or near any mine, dock, railway station or factory with a view to recovering any debt from any workmen employed therein shall be punished with imprisonment which may extend to six months or with fine or with both. The Act applies, in the first instance, to Calcutta and the three surrounding districts but can be extended to other areas. The Act was amended in 1940 to prevent besetting more effectively and to bring any workmen employed by local authority or in public utility service and seamen within its protection. Another Act of the same character was passed in the C. P. called C. P. Protection of Debtors' Act, 1937. These Acts do not appear to have had any tangible effect.

The Royal Commission further recommended legislation to liquidate unsecured debts due from workmen and suggested that the assistance of the law should be restricted to the recovery of such sums as the borrower can reasonably pay in limited period of time.[2] The Government of India have taken no action and the only legislative action taken on this recommendation is the C. P. Adjustment and Liquidation of Industrial Worker's Debt Act, 1936. The debts of an industrial worker whose average income does not exceed Rs. 50 a month can be adjusted under this Act to his repaying capacity if they exceed his assets plus three months' average income. The interest charges are reduced in accordance with the principle of *dam-dupat* (i.e., the aggregate of unpaid interest may not exceed the principal of the debt). The amount of the wages which he may be required to pay in any one month varies from 1|6th to 1|3rd and payments cannot extend beyond 36 months. It appears that very little advantage is taken by workers of this Act though action was taken in that province to bring its provisions pointedly to the notice of workers' organisations.

It is very desirable that other provincial Governments should adopt as soon as possible legislation to prevent besetting and to liquidate the debts of industrial workers. It is needless to say that such action will go

[1]The Report of the Royal Commission on Labour in India, p. 235.

[2]Ibid, pp. 232-233.

far in improving the lot of workers whose sufferings are not to a small extent due to their indebtedness.

XI—*War-time Regulations.*

To ensure that relations between employers and workers do not get strained and thereby upset the machinery of production in industries engaged on war work, the Government of India promulgated several rules and ordinances during war-time. Some of the important rules and ordinances bearing on employer-worker relations were as follows:—

(i) *Defence of India Rule,* 81-*A.*

This Rule which was promulgated in January 1942 empowered the Central Government to prohibit strikes or lock-outs in connection with any trade disputes, to require employers to observe specified terms and conditions of employment for a given period and to refer a dispute for conciliation or adjudication. A general order passed under the Rule in August 1942 prevents any person in any undertaking from going on strike without giving 14 days' clear notice to the employer within one month before striking, and when a dispute is referred for conciliation or adjudication the worker is prevented from going on strike until the expiry of two months after the conclusion of the proceedings upon such reference. The powers conferred by the Rule can also be exercised by the Provincial Governments subject to certain qualifications. Most Provincial Governments have made extensive use of these powers by referring trade disputes to adjudication.

(ii) *National Service (Technical Personnel) Ordinance,* 1940.

This Ordinance gave the Central Government and the National Service Labour Tribunals, which were entrusted with local administration of the Ordinance, power to require industrial undertakings to release technical personnel for employment in factories under the Crown or on work of national importance and to require technical personnel to undertake employment in any such factory. The object of the Ordinance was to control employment and distribution of technical personnel with a view to its being utilised to the maximum advantage for the efficient prosecution of the war.

(iii) *Essential Services (Maintenance) Ordinance,* 1941.

This applied to all employment under the Crown and could be extended to any employment which Government considered essential for securing the defence of British India, the public safety, the maintenance of public order, or the efficient prosecution of the war. The Ordinance made it an offence punishable with imprisonment and fine for any person, engaged in any employment covered by it, to abandon such employment or absent himself from work without reasonable excuse. Employers who, without reasonable excuse, discontinued the employment of any person were also penalised correspondingly.

These war-time restrictions and Ordinances, though they have proved somewhat irksome to certain sections of labour, may be regarded as a passing phase, and we do not propose to discuss them at length.

CHAPTER III.

MIGRATION AND SOURCES OF LABOUR SUPPLY.

I—*Introductory.*

The Report of the Royal Commission contains a penetrating analysis of the question of migration and sources of labour supply in Indian industry. Briefly, their findings are as follows:—(1) that the smaller centres everywhere draw on the surrounding rural areas for all the workers they require, except labour demanding special skill; (2) that the only centres which have reached the stage of being compelled to go far afield for the bulk of their labour are Jamshedpur and the two big industrial areas of Bombay and Hoogly; (3) that while in the West, factory workers are drawn mainly from amongst persons brought up in the towns, and partly from amongst those who have abandoned the country for the towns, the Indian factory operatives are nearly all migrants.

The Commission further state that in the seasonal industries dealing largely with the treatment of agricultural products in the raw state after they have been harvested, there is an intimate connection between industrial and agricultural work and that in the collieries too, there is a substantial class directly interested in agriculture. The truth behind the assertion of the agricultural character of the factory population is that the great majority of those employed are at heart villagers; they have had in most cases a village upbringing, they have village traditions and they retain some contact with the villages. This does not necessarily mean that they are all drawn from agricultural classes. The residue, who have no village ties and look upon the city as their home, are only a small percentage of the total labour force. In the most industrialised areas such as Hoogly and Bombay Island, this class forms a small proportion of the factory employees. It is proportionately more numerous in such centres as Ahmedabad, Nagpur and Madras. On the one hand, the factory population, generally speaking, is not divorced from the land, as in the West, and on the other hand it cannot be regarded as composed of a mass of agriculturists serving a short term in industry.

After giving the above analysis, the Commission arrive at the conclusion that industrial workers are pushed rather than pulled to the cities and raise the question whether effort should be directed towards building up an industrial population divorced from the villages, or whether existing contracts should be maintained and stimulated. They express it as their considered opinion that the link with the village is a distinct asset and the general aim should be not to undermine it but to encourage it and, as far as possible, to regularise it. They further point out that it is doubtful if it is legitimate to describe as transitional the connection with the village, which has lasted so long and which, in most important centres, certainly has not weakened in a generation.[1]

We have been anxious to ascertain to what extent, if any, the position described by the Commission has altered after the lapse of about fifteen years. We felt in the early stages of our investigation that in order to examine this matter thoroughly and in detail, we should have some statistical evidence on the subject and, therefore, requested the Director, Cost of Living Index Scheme with the Government of India (who is also a

[1] *Report*, pp. 19-20.

Member of the Committee), to collect the necessary information in the course of the Family Budget Enquiries which were then in progress in many centres of the country. 'Accordingly, a brief form was drawn up which is reprodueed in Appendix VII. As some of the Family Budget enquiries had already been completed while others had made considerable progress, the number of completed forms obtained for various centres was not very large although, in most cases, we were able to obtain a fairly representative sample. We give below an analysis of the results of these enquiries which we have supplemented in some cases with the available published material.

Information regarding migration and allied matters was obtained from 679 working-class families in Bombay City. It was found that only 3 belonged to the city while 63 came from other Provinces and 616 or 90.72 per cent of the total belonged to the Province itself. Out of the 63 coming from Provinces other than Bombay, 15 came from Madras, 12 from U. P., 2 from C. P. and 34 from other Provinces. 'Of the City's sources of labour supply from the Province of Bombay, the Ratnagiri district is by far the most important and it was found that, out of 616 coming from the various districts of the Province, 316 or 51.3 per cent came from that district alone. The next largest source of supply was the Satara district, followed closely by the Poona and Kolaba districts. Of the 679 samples, 416 or 61.27 per cent, reported that they or the heads of their families had visited their village homes during the last twelve months. The average number of visits made was 1.06, the average duration of the visits being 22.15 days or 20.9 days per visit. Of the total of 679 samples, no fewer than 306 or 45.07 per cent stated that they owned some land in their villages. Only 18 of the workers, however, looked after the cultivation of the land themselves and in the rest of the cases this was done by relatives or other persons. In the mapority of cases there was no settled period such as the sowing, harvesting or marriage seasons for visiting the village homes but in 388 out of the 441 cases or in 87.98 per cent of the total, homes were visited either when the workers got leave or when they had to go to their village homes for some other purpose such as private business or rest and recuperation. Only 2 reported that they visited their village homes for sowing, 11 for harvesting and 40 for a visit to their villages during the marriage season. An analysis of the data collected under the heading "purpose of the visit" showed that in 381 or 86.39 per cent of the total number of cases the purpose was *casual.* In 40 cases it was social ceremonies, in 13 cultivation and in 7 festivals. Using the term 'immigrant' as signifying that the worker belonged to a district other than the one in which his place of employment was situated, it was found that in Delhi 81.71 per cent of the workers were immigrant, the percentage of such workers in Jubbulpore being almost 100. In Lahore, the percentage was 91.21, in Karachi 81.2 and in Tinsukia in Assam 93. Only in Dehri-on-Sone was it found that the percentage of the immigrant workers came to about one-third of the total. In Lahore and Dehri-on-Sone, however, the immigration is more inter-district than inter-provincial, the percentage of immigrants from other Provinces being 19.23 and 11.2 per cent respectively. On the other hand, as high a percentage as 77.18 of the workers in Karachi belonged to Provinces other than Sind. In Delhi, the important sources of immigration are the U. P. and the Punjab. Karachi draws its labour supply from Bombay, the Punjab and U. P. In Tinsukia, in Assam, the largest single source of labour supply was Bengal, while Bihar

and U. P. were close seconds. We tried to ascertain the extent to which industrial workers owned land in their villages. We did not find a single case in Delhi (among 443 samples), Lahore (546), and Jubbulpore (475). In Karachi, Tinsukia and Dehri-on-Sone, however, a large percentage, 43.3, 47.6 and 55.2 per cent respectively, reported that they owned land in their villages. In almost all these cases cultivation was looked after by relatives and not by the workers themselves. The Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee conducted detailed investigations into the question of mobility of labour and have given statistics for certain centres in Bihar regarding the occasional visits of workers to their villages. They found that in Jamshedpur, out of a sample of 935 families, 714 paid an occasional visit to their village homes. In 390 or 55 per cent of the cases, the visits were on account of personal or social causes not connected with social ceremonies. Out of these, in 216 cases the reason given was meeting relations. In 210 cases or about 30 per cent of the total, the visits were for social ceremonies. In 20 cases, the cause of the visit was religious ceremonies, while in 94 cases the causes were economic, such as to build or repair houses, help in agriculture, etc. Thus, the most predominant cause of workers' visits to their homes in villages does not appear to be cultivation of land so much as seeing relatives and friends, attending marriages and festivals, although such visits often coincide with the festival season such as Holi, Pujas, etc.

The above analysis relates mainly to factory workers and seems clearly to suggest that the bulk of factory workers, though immigrant in character, have little stake in agriculture and are pushed rather than pulled to the cities as observed by the Royal Commission. Moreover, their occasional visits to their village homes are more for rest and recuperation than for attending to cultivation. We now proceed to consider briefly the sources from which labour is drawn in the principal industries.

II—*Sources of Labour in Principal Industries.*

Cotton.—The Cotton Industry in Bombay City draws its labour force mostly from the neighbouring districts of Konkan and the districts of Satara and Sholapur. A certain percentage of the workers also comes from the Deccan and the United Provinces. Cotton mill workers in Bombay have still maintained their link with their village homes and repair to the village once a year or once in two years. Such migration, however, is not in the nature of an exodus and most of the workers who are permanent return to work after the expiry of their leave or holidays. It is understood that in recent years the labour force in the Cotton Mill Industry in Bombay City has become much more stable than was the case a few years ago. The position regarding the grant of leave to cotton mill operatives has now been regulated by the Standing Orders under which a month's leave without pay in a year may be granted at the discretion of the management. The bulk of the labour force in the Ahmedabad cotton textile industry belongs to Ahmedabad district and the adjoining Indian States in Gujerat. About 12 per cent of the workers come from Rajputana and about 6 per cent from Kathiawar. A small proportion of the workers also comes from U. P., Deccan, C. P. and other parts of India. The principal sources of labour supply, however, are Ahmedabad City and district and Baroda State. There is very little seasonal migration for agricultural operations. Generally, the younger members of the family

migrate to the city for working in the mills while the others attend to agricultural operations in their villages. Workers coming from other Provinces generally go to their village homes once in two years. The labour in Sholapur belongs either to Sholapur proper or to the adjoining villages and districts. The bulk of the labour force in Cawnpore comes from the neighbouring agricultural areas in the U. P. The proportion of locally settled labour is about 20 per cent but most of the workers belong to the Province of U. P. and there is very little immigration from outside. In C. P., both at Nagpur and at Akola, the labour in cotton mills has mostly settled down and is not migratory. In south India labour is mostly locally recruited, although a proportion of it comes from the adjoining districts. Turning to the Indian States, the cotton mills in Baroda do not depend much on outside sources for their labour force. It is reported that over 75 per cent of the workers belong to the city proper, about 10 to 15 per cent come from outside with a view to making Baroda their permanent home and only a small percentage comes from surrounding villages. In Mysore State, the labour employed in the Bangalore Cotton mills is mostly drawn from the neighbouring villages and some of the neighbouring Tamil districts of the Madras Presidency. A certain portion of the labour force has now settled down in Bangalore. The mills in Cochin State have an adequate supply of local labour although lately there has been a tendency for some of the workers to migrate to centres like Coimbatore where higher wages are obtainable.

Jute.—The jute industry is largely manned by non Bengalis, especially by workers belonging to the United Provinces, the Central Provinces, Madras and Bihar. In the mills located in Calcutta proper, however, there is a certain amount of local labour working in departments such as spinning, machine sewing, etc., and these are mostly Muslims. Bengali—both Hindus and Muslims—seem reluctant to work in any of the unskilled occupations in the Jute Mills. Even during the dark days of the Bengal famine, when thousands of people from the surrounding districts flocked to the jute mills for work, they considered it below their dignity to work as coolies, sweepers, etc. Although it is fairly common to find in many industrial centsés workers from a particular Province working in a particular department, this tendency is most pronounced in the case of the jute mill industry in Bengal. For instance, the United Provinces provide a large supply of weavers while, in the batching departments of the mills, Oriyas and Biharis are usually to be found. Softener feeders are mostly *chamars* from Bihar, Bilaspur, etc. Heavy work in the mills such as the lifting of the bales is generally done by men from Gorakhpur and Gaya. The Madrasis dominate the preparing departments of most of the Jute Mills in Bengal. The local labour force from the 24-Parganas belongs mostly to the agricultural classes who generally leave for their villages during the week-ends.

Engineering.—No definite statistical information is available on the question of migration in the Engineering industry. Large concerns like the Tata Iron and Steel Co. and the Tinplate Co. of India at Jamshedpur State that they have no migratory labour and that their labour force is permanently settled. On the other hand, the J. K. Group of Mills, Cawnpore, roughly estimate that only 20 per cent of their labour is permanently settled and 80 per cent is migratory. The situation differs not only from area to area, but from factory to factory and it has been worsened by war-time expansion. The engineering industry claimed 1,186 factories

with 2,46,254 wokers in 1939; in 1943, it had 1,929 factories and 5,13,613 workers. This sudden expansion brought about the migration of a number of workers from villages and, to a certain extent, from other factories. The source from which labour is drawn is mainly the area adjoining the factory. In many cases labour is attracted from different Provinces. For example, in the Tinplate Co. of India (Jamshedpur), the proportion of labour drawn from various Provinces is reported to be as follows: Punjab: 19 per cent; Bihar: 15 per cent; Madras: 14 per cent; Assam: 11 per cent; Bengal: 11 per cent; C. P. 8 per cent; U. P. 8 per cent; Orissa: 8 per cent and other areas 6 per cent. The Tata Iron and Steel Co. in the same place draws its labour from Bihar, Bengal, U. P., C. P., Punjab, Orissa and Madras. The J. K. Industries of Cawnpore draw their labour chiefly from Bihar, Bengal, Assam, Rajputana, the Punjab, the eastern districts of U. P. and the suburbs of Cawnpore. The ordnance depots at Dehu Road, near Poona, get their unskilled labour mostly from the Kanarese and Telugu speaking districts of Bombay and Madras. On the other hand, a number of factories in big cities like Bombay and Calcutta get their labour mostly from the suburbs. In the Calcutta area the experience of the older engineering concerns is that a high proportion of their labour is Bengali in origin and is permanently settled in the Calcutta urban area or in the riverine villages within the industrial area on both sides of the river Hoogly. Approximately 60 per cent of the engineering labour in the Calcutta area is permanently settled while the remaining 40 per cent is recruited partially from other Provinces and partially from Eastern Bengal. Fifty per cent of the employees in the Indian Cable Co., Jamshedpur, are aboriginals, drawn chiefly from adjoining areas. The Bhadravati Iron Works in Mysore also draw from nearby Provinces, a majority of workers speaking Telugu, Canarese and Tamil. In the Ordnance Factory, Khamaria (Jubbulpore), labourers from villages, mainly from Rewa State, are recruited by an Officer on Special Duty at Gorakhpur, on attractive terms including free ration and free housing. The labour drawn temporarily from adjacent places has a tendency to return to their villages occasionally, particularly during harvest seasons. However, it can be said that labour in the engineering industry is less mobile than in other industries, mainly because this industry, unlike many others, can claim an industrial proletariate which has more or less lost its connection with agriculture. The engineering worker, especially a skilled one, has little to fall back upon in his own village and the craftsman is no longer a farmer. Moreover, the engineering worker gets more wages and has a better sense of stability.

Dockyards.—In the dockyards at Karachi, about 50 per cent of the labour is drawn from the city itself and the rest comes from Punjab, United Provinces and certain districts of Bombay Province. Most of the skilled workers in the dockyards at Vizagapatam are evacuees from Burma and a large number of unskilled labourers in the port dockyard comes from Chittagong.

Printing Presses.—Out of 537 sampled workers in Lahore the majority or 319 belonged to Lahore, 162 came from the other parts of the Punjab and the rest from other provinces. The workers engaged in the Printing industry in Allahabad and Aligarh are mostly domiciled in the places where they work. Out of 162 sampled workers in Calcutta only 66 or 19% were found to have migrated from other provinces.

Glass.—A fairly large percentage of the war-time recruits in the Bombay and Bengal glass factories came from U. P. particularly the blowers for whom there is a great demand everywhere. In U. P., the workers are mostly local and come from the three districts of Agra, Bijnor and Moradabad. Since the industry in the Punjab is very young, skilled and semi-skilled workers have to be brought from the older centres like Allahabad, Firozabad, Calcutta, etc. In one concern at Amritsar, out of 150 workers about 60 per cent were brought from Calcutta. Most of the skilled labour in Madras is drawn from outside, particularly Poona. This labour is said to be very unsteady and migratory in character, going from one concern to another with the attraction of higher wages. Most of the unskilled workers, men and women, come from the neighbourhood. A part of the skilled labour in Bangalore is obtained from Ogalewadi by payment of travelling expenses and higher wages. About 20% of the skilled labour comes from outside. It will be seen that there has been virtually a scramble for skilled and semi-skilled workers. Workers are recruited from areas hundreds of miles away from the factories. The labour thus recruited never stays in any factory for long.

Shellac.—In the Shellac industry in Bihar, which is the most important centre of the industry in the country, the workers are mostly drawn locally and only a negligible proportion is migratory. Among those recruited from outside are *karigars* from Mirzapur and *rankariyas* from Burdwan, some of whom have settled permanently at Balrampur and Jhalda. On the other hand, there is considerable seasonal migration of labour into agriculture and from one *bhatta* to another according to the availability of work. Migration between the different centres is very slight. Stabilisation of the labour force in this industry presupposes some action to ensure a regular supply of the main raw materials required for the industry, namely, stick lac, seedlac and fuel. In the industry at Mirzapur the workers are largely cultivators themselves or drawn from the class of landless labourers and go to the villages for agricultural operations which enables them to supplement their meagre incomes.

Tanneries.—A large majority of workers in tanneries in U. P. are drawn from villages. In leather goods factories the workers are mostly urban dwellers and belong to the cities of Cawnpore, Unao, Allahabad and Agra. Labour in Madras is available in plenty and employers do not find it difficult to recruit new workers directly. In Calcutta, out of 214 sampled workers, 194 or about 91% were found to have migrated from other Provinces.

Bidi-making.—The local labour in C. P. has completely ousted the skilled labour brought from Gujerat. Formerly bidi-making was almost monopolised by the Mahars who still form the large majority of the labour employed in this industry. Bidi labour in Bombay consists mostly of women from Hyderabad (Deccan) and is mixed in Nasik, Sinnar, and Nipani. In Sholapur it consist entirely of women who are mostly wives of textile workers. Labour is available locally in all the South Indian Centres. In Tinnevelly and Mysore a good proportion of the workers comes from South Travancore and Malabar respectively. The majority of workers in Calcutta are from Bihar and about 90 per cent of the workers are Muslims. At Bankura most of the workers are local and belong to the scheduled castes.

Cigar and Cigarette Making.—The cigar workers are mostly local and have been in the trade for a long time. The occupation is carried on from father to son. Cigarette factories recruit their labour at the gate.

Salt.—In the Rock salt mines at Khewra the labour force consists of local hereditary miners and the mines have always an abundant supply of labour for work in the mines. The problem here is not so much of securing a stable labour force as of finding full employment to the mining community.

Gold.—The labour force on the Kolar Gold Field is of a very heterogenous character. According to the Mysore Census Report, 1941, about 25.5% are Mysoreans and 74.5% outside labour.[1] The bulk of outside labour belongs to the West Coast and Tamil districts bordering on Mysore State. A striking feature is that half the labour force belongs to the Depressed Classes called the Adidravidas. The amenities provided by the companies have acted as an inducement to a large proportion of the labour force to settle down on the Field. Thus, there are a number of families who have come from the West Coast and Tamil districts and settled down on the Field for nearly two to three generations.

Mica.—In considering the sources of labour supply in the Mica industry we may confine our attention only to the industry in Bihar as it accounts for nearly four fifths of the total production of Mica. At first the industry got its labour supply from the adjoining villages but, as it developed, Santhals from Chhota Nagpur migrated into the area in search of employment. Since the beginning of the war, however, there has been an entire change in the composition of the labour force. For instance, whereas in the pre-war period Santhals accounted for 70% of the workers they now represent only 25%. The proportion of Rajputs, Gurlas and Ghatwars has now risen from 35% to about 70%. About 5% of the labour force belongs to the scheduled castes and their proportion to the total has remained the same as during the pre-war period.

Manganese.—The Central Provinces account for the bulk of the production of manganese in India. Here, about 20% of the labour employed in the mines is local while in Shivrajpur and in Sandur State about 50% is local labour coming from adjacent village. The local labour in C. P. usually works only in the non-agricultural season and comes back to the mines after the crops are harvested. About 50% of the labour force in the C. P. mines belongs to the aboriginal classes. There is no settled labour force as such and the local labour is primarily agricultural. The main recruiting areas are Chattisgarh, Chhindwara, Jubbulpore, Sambalpur and Rewa State. In Shivrajpur, the main areas of recruitment are Jodhpur, Jaipur, Ajmer, Katni and Raichur while in Sandur State most of the imported workers come from Guddapa, Kurnool and Raichur.

Mineral Oil.—The workers in the Assam Oil Co. are mainly drawn from Assam, Eastern Bengal, Nepal and to a lesser degree from U. P. and the Punjab. The percentage of workers from Assam itself is 22. The bulk of the labour employed by the Attock Oil Co. is local and is recruited from neighbouring villages but a considerable number also comes from other districts of the Punjab and U. P.

[1] *Mysore Census*, 1941—*Industry in Mysore*, by P. H. Krishna Rao, p. 27-28.

Iron Ore.—Company labour employed in the Iron Ore industry is generally stable and permanent, but contractors' labour is migratory in its habits. For instance, at Noamundi, something like 50 per cent of contract labour is drawn from neighbouring districts and States. Such labour at Gorumahisani largely comes from the Mayurbhanj State and are generally Kols and Santhals. There is seasonal migration of the workers for agricultural purposes. According to the manager of the C. P. Syndicate, as many as 75 per cent of the workers at Gorumahisani return to their villages for agricultural operations during July and August. From the middle of November to the middle of December they again go for harvesting. Broadly speaking, contract labour migrates from the mines to the fields while company labour is more stationary. There also exists some migration between the mines *inter se* according to the availability of work.

Plantations.—The tea industry of Assam depends almost entirely on imported labour. The labour employed in it and to a certain extent in the Dooars and the Terai is recruited from great distances. Bihar contributes about 50 per cent of the recruits to Assam, the areas next in importance being Orissa and the Central Provinces. Recruitment to Assam is governed by the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act 1932, details regarding which have been given in another chapter. In South India, labour is recruited from areas which are situated close to the plantations. In Mysore, Coorg, parts of Malabar, the Nilgris, Cochin and Travancore, a certain amount of the labour employed is strictly local i.e., is resident in adjoining villages and comes to work on the estate each day. Such labour, however, plays only a minor part in the larger tea and coffee estates but is of some importance in the rubber estates. Resident labour is recruited from three linguistic areas, viz., Tamil, Malyalam and Canarese. The important Tamil districts for the recruitment of labour are Tinnevelly, Coimbatore, Salem, Trichinopoly and Ramnad. Malabar has been an important source of recruitment for rubber tapping although peasants of Travancore and Cochin have recently taken to this work. The Kanarese-speaking labourers are mostly from South Kanara district and Mysore State. In the Nilgiris, the Wynaad and Coorg, certain hill tribes such as Yeravahs, Kurbas and Panias are available for employment, while in the Shevaroys local tribes called 'Malayan' offer themselves for work.

Rickshaw Pullers.—Rickshaw pullers are almost entirely drawn from villages and districts adjoining the centres in which they ply their trade. Thus, among rickshaw pullers in Simla, nearly half come from the Simla States, about 36 percent from the Kangra district and nearly 15 per cent from the Hoshiarpur district. In Madras, the largest single source of supply of rickshaw pullers is South Arcot and Chingleput, the Telugu districts of Hyderabad being close seconds. In Calcutta, until recently there were very few Bengli pullers although as a result of the famine of 1943, their number has increased. However, even today the majority of the pullers are from some well-defined zones of Bihar and U.P. It would appear that the vast majority of rickshaw pullers have been driven into this profession owing to lack of employment in villages. It was noticed in Calcutta that some factory workers and inferior municipal employees have taken to rickshaw pulling with a view to earning supplementary income during spare time.

III—*The Village Nexus.*

The above brief analysis seems to indicate, firstly, that although in many centres of industry labour is immigrant in the sense that it does not actually belong to its place of work, it is nonetheless not purely migratory in the sense in which the word is understood in common parlance. That is to say, such workers, except when they work as casual labourers, are not without a stake in the industry from which they draw their sustenance. Secondly, it is clear that, in centres like Jamshedpur and Ahmedabad, where wages are higher than elsewhere, there is no inducement to labour to migrate from place to place. Thirdly, the above analysis shows that although most industrial workers have no stake in land, they still retain their link with their village homes.

The available evidence appears to indicate that stability of labour can be brought about by the improvement of working and living conditions generally in the industries in which such workers are called upon to work. In this connection, the All-India Trade Union Congress has observed as follows: "We consider that the only way of securing a stabilised labour force and for the protection of the interests of the industrial workers is firstly to provide adequate housing accommodation for them in industrial centres, and, secondly, to make provision for their maintenance during illness, unemployment and old age." This is not merely the view of the spokesmen of workmen's interests, but also of certain enlightened employers in the country one of whom (the Bangalore Woollen, Cotton and Silk Mills) observes: "We consider that a stabilised labour force is desirable. In order to achieve a stabilised labour force everything possible should be done to make the worker realise that he is an essential part of an industry. He should be provided with good accommodation at a reasonable rental and all the amenities of a stable existence such as shops within easy reach, post offices, cheap and frequent bus services, entertainments, etc. He should also be a member of a Provident Fund or Pension Fund of some description and have an interest in the profits of his company in the form of a bonus based on dividends". The view of another large employer from Bombay (Lever Bros. Ltd.) is: "A stabilised labour force is very desirable in the interests of the industry. A minimum living wage leading gradually to a better standard of living, holidays with pay, security of employment, sickness and old age insurance and other welfare activities are some of the measures necessary to keep labour stabilised". Where the employers have looked after their labour by paying a decent living wage, providing good housing accommodation and making provision for the future, etc., labour is much more stable than it is elsewhere. A noable example of this is furnished by the Tatas at Jamshedpur and by the Gold companies in the Kolar Gold field in South India.

We may now turn to the view of the Royal Commission that the village nexus should be maintained and encouraged. Our factual survey shows that most of the workers in industrial towns are landless labourers and that they resort to the village occasionally for purposes of rest and recreation, social ceremonies, etc. If that is so, it is obvious that from the worker's point of view there is no urgent necessity of going back to the village as often as possible. There is nothing to suggest that conditions of employment, wages, housing, etc., are any better in the village than in the town. It is, of course, an undeniable proposition that the village and joint family have been a bulwark of social security for the

industrial worker, and as things stand, that is the situation which must continue in any case. Not only this, but so long as in this country modern measures for social security, such as insurance against sickness, unemployment, invalidity, etc., are not adopted, the village must be accepted as a source of comfort and security to the worker. In this connection the following observations of the Textile Labour Association, Ahmedabad, may be of some interest: "So long as the State or industry has made no provision against unemployment, it is desirable that the worker continues to retain his contact with the village home. Workers who have not retained such contacts find themselves in a difficult position when forced with long periods of unemployment or illness. We are, therefore, not in favour of stabilising the industrial workers in the urban areas permanently. We feel that a Labour Exchange and publication of statistics of unemployed persons, in all big industrial centres, would serve a useful purpose and check more than the necessary persons coming to the city."

This view of the Textile Labour Association shows the pathetic position of landless labourers seeking jobs in industrial areas, but the remedy they suggest is a counsel of despair. We do not agree with the Association's view that measures have to be taken to prevent worker from migrating to the towns. A more positive policy is surely indicated, a policy of not only providing employment to these workers in the towns, but making the towns as attractive as possible to them. It is quite true that, under present conditions, those who wish to migrate to the cities rely on the reports brought by the industrial workers returning to the village homes or on gossip in fairs and bazaars and that this often leads to a considerable amount of hardship to those who, attracted to the towns by the lure of employment, find on arrival that no jobs are available for them. This is no doubt a very unsatisfactory situation, but its solution lies in creating new employment and improving labour conditions in the towns, and helping the worker to find the right job in industrial occupations.

The question of maintenance of contact with the village may be considered from two angles. Firstly, the village may be looked upon as a place where the industrial worker can seek relaxation for short periods. Secondly, it can be regarded as a source of security to him. So far as the former aspect is concerned, we have no doubt that the industrial worker should be given the fullest facilities including those of transport, such as cheap return tickets, etc., during holidays or leave. On the other hand, we do not accept the proposition that the village nexus is to be positively encouraged in the years to come as a source of social security for the workers. The obvious course is to improve conditions in the industrial towns, as regards work in factories, housing, wages, nutrition, etc., and also to provide measures of social security for the workers. It has been generally admitted that apart from the development of landlessness amongst workers, the village, the joint family and the caste, are steadily deteriorating as economic supports of the workers, and that, at the present juncture, the workers are in a transitional stage in which they are gradually losing the support of the village and have not been able to secure a firm footing in the industrial areas. In view of this, to turn back the clock of time and either to prevent the worker from coming to the town or to force him back to the village would be a step in the wrong direction.

CHAPTER IV.

EMPLOYMENT OF LABOUR—I.

In this and the next Chapter we shall discuss the main aspects of employment of industrial as well as semi-industrial labour, and deal with important matters relating to employment, such as, Recruitment of Labour, Contract Labour, Employment Exchanges, Training of Apprentices, the tenure and length of service, Labour Turnover, Absenteeism, Promotion, Holidays with Pay, Fines and Fine Funds, Labour Management, etc.

1—*Recruitment.*

Recruitment is the first step in the employment of labour, and naturally the methods and organisation by means of which labour is brought into industry has a lot to do with the ultimate success or failure of such employment. The system of recruitment in India has grown up in a haphazard manner and consequently there has been no application of any scientific principles of labour administration and labour management. Unfortunately, in India there is a large and perennial supply of unskilled labour flowing from the villages to the towns and back again to the villages, according to seasonal and other requirements. No doubt, in some industrial centres in recent years a class of industrial workers is steadily arising, which is prepared to depend solely on industry and to settle in the town, but broadly the village still remains the main source of labour supply. As the supply of labour is not localised in urban areas, the system of recruitment has had to be adapted to this situation and sometimes in doing this questionable methods of recruitment have been followed for obtaining the required labour. Both organised and unorganised industries have largely depended upon a number of intermediaries such as, jobbers, *sardars*, and contractors, in order to establish contacts with labour in the villages and to bring it to the cities. Labour has been very often attracted to the cities with promises of better wages, more comfortable employment, better amenities, etc. The intermediaries themselves have been offered attractive commission. After coming to the industrial centres, the workers would naturally have settled down and made their homes therein, but the attractions promised and the hopes built upon them by workers have not always materialised. More often than not, they have been housed in dirty, congested, barrack-like rooms, without proper sanitation; they have been made to work long hours under irksome conditions in factories, mines and other establishments; they have been denied the privileges of holidays with pay, leave etc., and they have been subjected to a fairly hard discipline, to which they were not accustomed. Under such conditions, workers have generally shown a tendency to refuse to settle down in the cities and to go back to their villages as frequently as possible.

The recruitment of labour through intermediaries has been always fraught with serious evils. The Royal Commission neatly summarise the abuses of this system:[1]

> "The temptations of the jobbers' position are manifold, and it would be surprising if these men failed to take advantage of their opportunities. There are few factories where a worker's

[1] *Report*, p. 24.

> security is not, to some extent, in the hands of a jobber; in a number of factories the latter has in practice the power to engage and to dismiss a worker. We are satisfied that it is a fairly general practice for the jobber to profit financially by the exercise of this power. The evil varies in intensity from industry to industry and from centre to centre. It is usual for a fee to be exacted as the price of engagement, or of re-employment after a period of absence. In many cases a smaller regular payment has also to be made out of each month's wages. In other cases workers have to supply the jobber with drink or other periodical offerings in kind. The jobber himself has at times to subsidise the head jobber; and it is said that even members of the supervising staff sometimes receive a share of the bribe."

The jobber, known in different parts of India and in different industries by different names such as *sardar, mistry, mukadam, tindal, chowdhry, kangany,* etc., is almost a ubiquitous feature of recruitment and labour administration in India, and usually combines in himself a formidable array of functions. Thus he is not only a recruiting agent, but very often a supervisor or foreman, or even a sub-employer, or a gangman who is both a sub-employer and a worker sharing the income with other workers.

Although the Royal Commission condemned the system of recruitment of labour through intermediaries and some little improvement has resulted especially in cities like Bombay, Cawnpore, Jamshedpur, etc., the position has not materially changed. The Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee[1] have stated that even in centres like Bombay and Sholapur, where some sort of control of recruitment especially in the case of *badli* labour has been introduced, the jobber has not been eliminated, in practice, for purposes of recruitment; nor has he even lost his influence over recruitment. In spite of the undoubted abuses of the system, however, it is not certain that Indian labour has yet reached that stage of development and mobility where the intermediary for recruitment can be easily dispensed with; and under existing circumstances, in the absence of alternative agencies, the jobber or his various namesakes have to be accepted as an inevitable factor. The jobber's close touch with the recruiting districts and villages and his understanding and appreciation of the habits, hopes and fears of the workers, render his position more advantageous as compared to direct agencies of recruitment, in view of the latter's comparative aloofness. It must be remembered that even Government had to seek the help of such intermediaries and pay them a commission in order to obtain recruits for military service or other employment projects. To admit the inevitability of the jobber does not mean, however, that steps should not be taken on an increasing scale to regularise the system of recruitment for industries or put some method into it.

Generally speaking, a part of the labour in most factories and the bulk in some are recruited direct. Direct recruitment is more in evidence in the Provinces of Bombay, Madras and the Punjab. The general procedure for direct recruitment is exhibition of a notice at the factory

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[1] *Report*, p. 338.

gate that so much complement is required and selection by the factory manager or labour superintendent or some other official from amongst those who present themselves at the factory gate. Sometimes the requirement for fresh recruits is brought to the notice of those already working in the factory who advertise it among their friends and relations. A large number of applicants thus flock to the factory gate on the following day, and in some places, one can see large queues of work-beggars gathering in the morning hours. These methods are generally effective only for securing fresh labour under the unskilled categories or substitute workers. Recruitment of skilled or semi-skilled labour is, however, more difficult. A portion of the requirements are met by promoting improvers. Skilled workers are generally recruited by inviting applications and making a direct selection after trade tests, if necessary. Recruitment is also direct in some of the unregulated industries like bidi-making, shellac, coir matting, etc.

The method of recruiting on the railways differs in different circumstances and in different departments. On all State-owned and State-managed railways, the authority for recruiting non-gazetted staff against sanctioned posts vests in the General Manager or any other officer to whom he may delegate his powers. The General Manager is also responsiblel for laying down the procedure for such appointments. Usually, there are Selection Boards for the recruitment of subordinate staff, the Heads of Departments or Sections filling up the inferior posts. The Heads of other Railways are entrusted with the responsibility of recruiting the required staff.

Station masters are recruited after an initial period of training in telegraphy, transportation and commercial subjects; Commercial Departments require ticket collectors, booking clerks, and other staff to undtrgo similar training; Engineering Departments recruit permanent way and signal inter-locking staff as apprentices for a specific period before employment; inferior staff, including peons, watchmen, gangmen, porters, pointsmen, etc., are recruited direct by the department coneernd from amongst the local labourers as and when required. In the machine shops, unskilled workers are engaged locally, semi-skilled through promotion and skilled workers from amongst outside applicants trained in particular trades or apprentices drawn from the workshops. In some workshops, artisans are engaged by Labour Bureaux which make selection and rating of employees with the help of works managers and foremen.

In the mining industry the bulk of workers are recruited through intermediaries. Broadly speaking, in India, unlike other countries, there is no distinct class of miners. Workers are recruited from the agricultural classes, who generally return to their villages for seasonal agricultural operations. The oldest system of recruitment for coal mines was the *Zamindari* system, under which labourers were tempted to the mines with offers of plots of land either free of cost or at nominal rents. Labourers held these plots on the condition of working in the mines. Paucity of cultivable land near coalfields, on the one hand, and the not too encouraging results as regards output of such workers on the other, have now rendered the system more or less obsolete. The Royal Commission also condemned the system, stating that it was an "undesirable form of contract". Some mines have recently introduced systems of direct recruitment by sending out paid agents to recruiting areas. But

indirect methods are still widely prevalent. Several mines engage recruiting contractors who supply labour, while some engage managing contractors, who not only supply labour but are also responsible for raising coal and developing mines and even for part of the management. The most common form of recruitment, however, is through the raising contractors who bear all expenses of recruitment and are responsible for coal cutting and loading for which they are paid at a certain rate per ton. It may be incidentally noted that during war time Government also acted as contractors for supply of unskilled labour to coal mines owing to scarcity of labour and urgency of coal requirements.

In other mining industries, the position is somewhat different. The Iron Ore mining companies recruit their own labour direct locally. When fresh labour is required the companies' mates are asked to inform the workers who spread the news in the villages. Thereafter men gather at the companies' offices and are enlisted according to requirements. Labour for contract work in the quarries is recruited from the surrounding districts by the contractors through recruiting *sirdars* or sub-contractors. In Mica mines, Labour is recruited through *sardars* who are sent out with funds to villages in the vicinity. They pay advances to willing recruits and bring them to the mines. The recruiting *sardars* are not paid any commission but their wages depend on the number of workers recruited by them. The mines that are owned by zamindars obtain their labour from among the tenants of the proprietors. The bulk of the labour in Manganese mines in C.P. is recruited by raising contractors. About 50 per cent of the workers belong to the aboriginal classes. In the Shivrajpur mine in the Bombay Province recruitment is done through *tindals*. In the Sandur State nearly 50% of the labour is imported and is settled near the mines. The rest are local villagers coming daily to the mines from a distance of 5 to 10 miles. In Gold mining, the labour is recruited through the respective "time offices".

In the plantations, recruitment is governed by the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act of 1932 in the case of Assam, but there is no regulation in other areas. Even for Assam, the present control is only in respect of forwarding the assisted recruits and not the methods or agencies of recruitment, and the Act applies only to labour migrating from the six Provinces where notifications under Section 16 of the Act have been issued. Recruits are mostly aboriginals and are drawn mainly from Bihar, Orissa and C.P. Almost all the recruitment is done by the Tea Districts Labour Association set up by the tea industry for this purpose; the Association makes arrangements for forwarding recruits, though actual recruitment is largely done by the garden *sardars* who get a commission. In Bengal recruitment is done for the gardens in the Dooars mainly from Bihar. There is little or no recruitment in the Darjeeling district. In South India, labour is recruited from neighbouring areas through *kanganies*, who are generally drawn from the ranks of estate labourers themselves. The *kanganies* get only a commission on the wages of the workers, and they help the latter in difficulties, advance small amounts and act as intermediaries between them and the manager. They differ in this respect from the garden *sardars* of Assam in that the latter have no connection (as the former have) with labour after recruitment. Moreover, pre-employment advances are common in South India

but not in Assam. Under the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act, the worker has a right of repatriation at the expense of the garden after 3 years' work; in South India, however, workers are recruited for a period of 9 or 10 months only after which they return home, and a large majority of these come back to the same estate after respite. Another interesting feature of recruitment in plantations is that the basis of recruitment is the family, though this is also true, to a smaller extent, of the mining industry and some of the unorganised industries like shellac, mica, etc., in which families work in teams.

II—*Contract Labour.*

In many industries in India the system of contract labour appears to be firmly entrenched while the exigencies of the last war seem to have only accentuated this tendency. The principal industries in which contract labour is largely employed are engineering, Central and Provincial Public Works Departments, the cotton textile industry in some areas (especially Ahmedabad), dockyards, cement, paper, coir-matting and mining. In the cotton textile industry, contract labour is largely employed for work such as mixing, combing, dyeing, bleaching, finishing, etc. In Ahmedabad, for example, about 10 per cent of the total number of workers are employed through contractors. In the cement, paper and coir-matting industries, contract labour forms from 20 to 25 per cent of the total. In mines, as already stated, the bulk of the labour engaged is through contractors. The raising contractors in manganese mines not only recruit their labourers but pay them wages and often provide welfare amenities. Even in such a well-organised and long-established industry like gold mining in Kolar, 6,358 workers out of 19,936 were under contractors. Even in mines employing labourers direct, such ancillary work as development etc. is given to contractors. In Bengal dockyards, about 43 per cent of the total number of workers are employed through contractors. In plantations, contract labour is rare and is confined to felling trees, building quarters, or maintenance of roads, etc.

Immediate employment of a large labour force at short notice to facilitate speedy execution of work, the want of adequate supervisory staff and the absence of adequate machinery of Employment Exchanges, which could supply the required number of workers when needed, have been one of the reasons advanced in favour of the employment of contract labour. Whatever may be the grounds advanced by employers, it is to be feared that the disadvantages of the system are far more numerous and weightier than the advantages. In the first place, the contract system undoubtedly enables the principal employer to escape most of the provisions of the Labour Acts, especially the Factories Act, the Payment of Wages Act, the Maternity Benefit Act, etc., though the Workmen's Compensation Act protects the worker from the evils of vicarious liability arising from the contract system. In a factory, mine, or workshop the contract labour is here today and gone tomorrow, and it becomes difficult for the administrators of the law to come to grips with the system. In this connection the Royal Commission aptly remarked:[1]

> "We have found it to be generally true that workmen employed by salaried managers, who are personally responsible for their workers, receive more consideration than those employed by

[1] *Report*, p. 119.

> contractors..... We believe that, whatever the merits of the system in primitive times, it is now desirable, if the management is to discharge completely the complex responsibility laid upon it by the law and by equity, that the manager should have full control over the selection, hours of work and payment of the workers."

The Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee likewise have condemned the system of recruitment through contractors, who, according to the Committee, "Ordinarily lack the sense of moral obligation towards labour which the employers or their managers are expected to have, and, therefore, do not often hesitate to exploit the helpless position of labour in their charge."[1] The Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry committee agrees with this view, and further state, in regard to the cotton mill worker that "if the management of the mills do not assume responsibility for such labour, there is every likelihood of its being sweated and exploited by the contractor". That brings us to the second point. The contractor has obtained his contract by vortue of his being the lowest bidder for the work, and naturally, unless he pays low wages and intensifies the pace of work, he cannot earn any profit. Thus, ultimately this results in the sweating of labour. Thirdly, it is clear that one of the main reasons for which employers in some of the industries favour the contract system is that, apart from administrative convenience, they find it also financially profitable in the short run. It is doubtful, however, if an enlightened employer would regard this advantage as of any very great importance. In view of these considerations, not only the Royal Commission but also the Bombay and Bihar Committees have suggested legal abolition of the system of contract labour, and we fully endorse that suggestion. Of course, we cannot expect that all contract work will be necessarily terminated; but some sort of distinction between essential and non-essential processes will have to be drawn. For example, if a textile factory owner calls a building contractor for painting or white-washing which are not part of the essential processes in the factory, there can be no objection; but the manner in which employers seek to avoid their obligations towards workers by delegating even essential processes (for example mixing, or bleaching in a textile mill or raising of coal in a coal mine, etc.) can and should be prohibited. In the special case of P.W.D. labour, however, the Royal Commission agreed that employment through contractors was the only satisfactory method, stating that with the repeal of the Workmen's Breech of Contract Act, the power of contractors to retain unwilling labour had gone and both Government and contractors must depend on making conditions attractive. We do not wholly agree with this *laissez faire* view of the matter and are inclined to think that although in the P.W.D. and in the building trades generally, contract labour is advantageous, freedom of contract does not necessarily secure attractive conditions for the worker. As our survey of C.P.W.D. labour shows, contract labour is not favourably placed. The only method of tackling the problem, therefore, is to regulate the conditions of contact labour in all industries, where its existence is inevitable.

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[1] *Repoort*, p. 36.

[2] *Repoort*, p. 365.

III—*Other Agencies of Recruitment.*

In order to obviate the evils of recruitment by jobbers, some industrial concerns have sought to introduce a system of recruitment through Labour Officers. Thus, for example, in the Bata Shoe Co., at Calcutta, the Scindia Shipyard at Vizagapatam and the Assam Oil Co., at Digboi, the responsibility for recruitment is that of the labour officer or Labour Superintendent. Sometimes these officers go to the recruiting villages and contact labour, but their opportunities are circumscribed by the fact that they are strangers and cannot inspire the same degree of confidence in the labour as people with some *locus standi* with the result that more often than not, instead of effecting direct recruitment, the Labour Officers serve only as a screen behind which the *sardari* type of recruitment is still continued. In the Madura Mills Co. in South India, there is an understanding between the management and the Labour Union that vacancies should be notified to the Union. The Union maintains a list of the relatives of work-people in the mill in search of jobs and also of the former temporary employees of the mills. On receiving intimation, the Union recommends names for vacancies. The selection is made by the management usually from the list supplied by the Union. Probably the only real remedy lies in having a wide network of Employment Exchanges. Employment Exchanges can not only prevent the abuses of recruitment through jobbers but are also bound to prove a more efficient system of recruitment for skilled and semi-skilled labour and also perhaps for unskilled labour. We shall, therefore, consider this very important agency of recruitment in the next section.

IV—*Employment Exchanges.*

The Royal Commission, while considering the measures to be adopted for unemployment resulting from economic depressions, discounted the utility of Employment Exchanges as an instrument of reducing unemployment. At the same time they admitted that these could "only increase the mobility of labour" and opined as follows: "Such bureaux, not in the industrial centres but in the areas from which the workers are drawn, might have served a useful purpose in the past. We do not think that it would be wise to start them at a time when most factory owners can find sufficient labour at the gates.[1] Notwithstanding this view, there is an increasing volume of opinion in favour of establishing Employment Exchanges and a majority of employers and their associations, as well as workers' associations, favour the establishment of Employment Exchanges for all industrial centres. Even if Employment Exchanges do not increase employment (at best they can reduce 'frictional' unemployment), they can at least remove the abuses of the present system of recruitment and save employers the trouble and expenses of active recruiting. Employment Exchanges are no longer to be regarded as institutions for the mere convenience of employers but should take their proper place in any orderly system of industrial relations. The All-India Trade Union Congress suggest that Employment Exchanges should render free service and that Central and Provincial Advisory Committees should be formed to help and advise them. The functions of employment offices can be many, but their main work consists of: (a) dissemination of information about man-power and jobs; (b) the placement work pro-

[1] *Report*, p. 35.

perly socalled; (c) appraisal of training needs and review of existing training plans; (d) vocational guidance and occupational information; (e) general information on employment useful to employers, Government agencies and the public generally; and (f) liaison work with various groups (including employers and workers) and close co-operation with other Government agencies. If these functions are fully discharged by Employment Exchanges, they are bound to prove useful in galvanising the employment market.

The Government of India have now set up an Employment machinery mainly with the object of re-settlement and re-employment of demobilised members of the Defence Services and discharged workers engaged in war work. Although the primary object is at present the re-settlement of demobilised men, it is hoped that this machinery would ultimately develop into an instrument of long-term policy for achieving the ideal of full-employment and for co-ordinating the man-power requirements of the various development plants with those of private industries. Meanwhile, the Employment Exchanges will help to smooth the transition from War to Peace, assist the workers to find the most suitable employment and employers to secure the most suitable men, and also ensure that the time-lag between the occurring of vacancies and their filling is as short as possible. They are expected also to see that the necessary skill is available in the market and is distributed satisfactorily among the various branches of production. The idea at present is to set up a network of Employment Exchanges throughout the country to facilitate registration and placement of demobilised persons. One Central and nine Regional Exchanges are already functioning, the Central Exchange being located at Simla and the Regional Exchanges at Lahore, Karachi, Calcutta, Nagpur, Bombay, Madras, Patna, Cawnpore and Delhi. In addition, it is also proposed to start two special Exchanges for Naval and Aircraft trades at Bombay and Bangalore respectively. Besides these, 59 Sub-Regional Exchanges spread throughout the country and several Employment Information Bureaux are also proposed to be started shortly. The function of the Central Employment Exchange is to co-ordinate the work of Regional Exchanges and to act as an inter-provincial clearing house, while that of Regional Exchanges is to co-ordinate the work of Sub-Regional Exchanges within their respective areas and to act as provincial clearing houses. A section of each Regional Exchange is also set apart for registration and placement work, especially for higher grade jobs. Sub-Regional Exchanges are responsible for the registration and placement of personnel within their respective areas, and a number of employment information bureaux attached to it will perform agency functions and form a link between the demobilised persons and the Sub-Regional Exchanges. Workers can register at the Employment Information Bureaux also.

V—*Training of Workers.*

Training of workers, in the case of industries involving technical or semi-technical processes, may be regarded as falling into two main Parts: (a) vocational education, and (b) practical training of apprentices. So far as vocational education is concerned, since the Royal Commission reported, much work has been done, and the matter has received considerable attention at the hands of both the Central Government and some of the Provincial Governments. It is being increasingly recognised that

it is one of the responsibilities of Government to establish an adequate number of specilised vocational, industrial, trade and technical institutions. The Abbot-Wood Report and the Sargent Report have both emphasised this aspect of the matter. In 1938 the Government of Bombay also appointed a committee on vocational training for boys and girls in schools. Simple vocational education, combined with a drive for literacy, is a basic necessity, so far as the vast masses of industrial workers in India are concerned. This will have to be followed up, in particular cases, by specialised vocational education either in technical institutes established by Government or by employers. When the Royal Commission reported, schemes of vocational education and practical training were already in operation in most Railway workshops, in the Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur and in many other factories. Since then, as our account in the following paragraphs will show, considerable progress has been made. However, industries are still manned by a large number of inefficient men, and it is to be feared that much of the backwardness of industries in competitive production *vis-a-vis* other countries is due to this factor. The Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee rightly place the responsibility for this state of affairs upon the State and the employers when they state[1], "Among employers in the textile industry in this province, as among employers in most other industries in India and elsewhere, the belief is current that workers are not as efficient as they ought to be. If there is any justification for this belief the responsibility for the present state of things rests more upon the shoulders of the State and the employers than upon those of the workers". As already stated, however, industrial training pre-supposes a sound basis of universal literacy, and this problem is really too vast to be tackled by any particular employer or group of employers. It is a hopeful sign of the times, therefore, that the Government of India have now with a desire to implement the proposals of the Sargent Report and as part of their programme of post-war planning, taken up this question of literacy and vocational education in right earnest.

Here it may be worth while to give a brief description of the various schemes of vocational training and apprenticeship in operation in industrial concerns as well as in other institutions. Railway workshops have a system of apprenticeship under which lower-grade apprentices are trained for skilled employment as workmen and high-grade apprentices are trained for the pos's of foremen. The Railways also provide area schools in several places, a technical school at Jamalpur and a Staff College at Dehra Dun. In some other industries, a few establishments, such as the Sone Valley Portland Cement Company of Bihar, the Assam Oil Company, the Tata Oil Mills Company of Bombay, the Tata Iron and Steel Company, the Tinplate Co., of India, and some other engineering works in Bombay, Bengal, Madras, U.P. and the Punjab, have well-defined apprenticeship schemes. Many Government and semi-Government concerns, the Dockyards at Bombay, Calcutta and Karachi and Port Trusts and Port workshops at Calcutta, Madras and Vizagapatam, a few Railways and some municipalities have also training schemes for apprentices. A few employers' organisations have arrangements for the training of apprentices but the schemes leave much to be desired. The Millowners' Association, Bombay, encourages workers to join the Social

[1]*Report*, p. 350.

Service League's Textile Technical School in Bombay, the expenses being met by the Mills. Nearly 500 workers are thus trained at the Institute every year. The Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, the Haji Saboo Siddik Industrial and Technical Institution and the Sassoon Polytechnical School—all of Bombay—provide courses in textile technology and other subjects to students. Similar technical institutes have been started at Bangalore, Cawnpore, Calcutta and other places. The Government of Bombay has a scheme of apprenticeship training under which the Director of Industries selects a number of candidates and puts them in various establishments for training. The period of apprenticeship is five years and the Government pays the apprentices a stipend of Rs. 15 p.m. in the first year, rising up to Rs. 20. The most ideal scheme of training is that of the Tata Iron and Steel Co., at Jamshedpur under which the apprentices get practical training at the works and theoretical guidance at the Technical Institute.

In some industries like glass, rice mills, and cotton ginning, although there is no well-defined system of apprenticeship, training for periods of one to three years is given to a few youngsters, mostly relatives of those already in service. A small allowance is also granted to them during this period of training. In several unorganised industries such as carpet-weaving, bidi and cigar-making, mica spliting, etc., children are brought to the workshop by workers with a view to getting help from them as well as training them. These children are not always relatives of workers but sometimes children of neighbours or friends, wanting to learn the trade. The workshop managers have no hand in such training. Payment for these trainees is not universal, although some are paid a pittance of one anna to two annas for such help as they may render.

Under the Technical Training Scheme of the Labour Department of the Government of India, many technicians were trained under the auspices of the National Service Labour Tribunals in Government and private factories throughout India and also a few technicians (Bevin Boys) abroad. With the end of War, the Government are now likely to give up the scheme. But the Education Department, in collaboration with the Planning and Development Department, may take over the entire training machinery, so as to render it useful for the programmes of post-war planning.

The total number of apprentices trained in some typical concerns during 1938—43 and the number of them who qualified and were absorbed in the respective concerns is given in the following table based upon figures supplied to the Committee:—

TABLE 37.

Figures relating to Apprenticeship.

Name of concern.	Engaged (1938-43).	Qualified.	Absorbed in the concern.	Qualified but left for service elsewhere	Did not qualify	Still under training
Andhra Paper Mills	7	7	7	..	..	..
Ahmedabad Millowners' Association	387	76	..	..	..	..
Sone Valley Portland Cement Co., Bihar	56	17	12	5	6	..
Tata Iron & Steel Co.	40	..	..	..	..	..
Tinplate Co. of India Golmuri, (1942-44)	40	2	2	..	..	38
Ganesh Flour Mill Co., Lyallpur	5	4	1	3	1	..
Tata Oil Mills Co., Bombay	224	82	49	33	129	13
H.M.I. Dockyard, Bombay	367	31	28	3	21	..
Madras Port Trust	33	1	1	..	15	17
Vizagapatam Port	49	6	6	..	24	19
B. N. Railway, Calcutta	1077	304	298	6	150	623
Port of Calcutta	28	19	5	14	13	..
O. & T. Rly. Gorakhpore	40	39	21	18	..	..
Manora Workshop, Karachi	54	5	2	3	15	..
Kargali & Bokaro Collieries	6	5	2	3	1	..
General and Electrical Workshops, Corporation of Madras	86	1	46	124	10	..

In most cases, the terms of apprenticeship or training are not precisely defined. Nor is there always any guarantee of employment after the period of training is over. Generally speaking, the terms of apprenticeship, where these are more or less defined, are as follows: Apprentices are generally asked to execute an agreement that they would serve the concern for a period of years, e.g., three or five years. For the first six months, they are usually on probation, during which time the apprenticeship may be terminated on 14 days' notice on either side. After being selected, apprentices are required to undergo a medical examination by the company's doctor or to produce a certificate of medical fitness. A minimum educational qualification, such as the Matriculation standard, is often insisted upon. For ordinary apprenticeship courses, however, a much lower standard is regarded as sufficient. Apprentices are ordinarily required to be of the age of 15 to 19. They have to follow factory discipline and are required to obey all rules and regulations and the instructions from their superiors. They are not allowed to join trade unions or to take part in their activities. They are required to attend the technical classes. In a few concerns, deposit of a security of Rs. 50 to Rs. 100 is required, and this is forfeited, if the apprentices fail to qualify after the period of apprenticeship or are dismissed for misconduct. They are paid

wages generally ranging from As. 8 to Rs. 1-4-0 per day and an annual increment is mostly granted. After completion of the period of apprenticeship, tests are conducted, and if the apprentices come out successful they get certificates to that effect. There is, however, no guarantee, as stated already, that after qualifying they would be given employment. Of course, the concerns try as far as possible to absorb them in their services and if so employed their period of apprenticeship also generally counts towards service. One common complaint, however, made by employers is that the apprentices after training do not always accept employment in the concern but prefer to take up work in other concerns.

After studying the various schemes of apprenticeship, whether subject to agreement or not, which are in operation in different industries, we feel that there is much scope for abuses here. The most serious abuse of the system is when an employer engages workmen, who are as good as regular workers as mere apprentices and pays them low wages or no wages at all. The Bihar Labour Inquiry Committee drew attention to this evil:[1]

> "A few cases have come under our observation elsewhere in which people supposed to be apprentices were doing work like other regular workers but without any payment. It was usual for them, we were told, to work on until they were absorbed when vacancies occurred in due course. It was argued that these people were not a source of profit to the management if account was taken of the damage to tools or loss of materials for which they were responsible. The argument is hardly convincing, and excepting when such apprenticeship is for the briefest period, there is likely to be a balance of gain to the employer. We cannot possibly leave him in a position to benefit from unpaid labour. We have also found cases where the apprentices who were taken over into its service by the industry after the completion of their training were paid less than the standard wage."

Not only are apprentices employed on low or no wages; in some cases they have themselves to pay fees to concerns for training. For example, in certain electrical concerns, apprentices have to pay the employers for the training afforded. To the extent that the apprentices actually pay in kind with their labour for the training given to them, it is not quite fair that in respect of wages their position should be so distinctly inferior to that of workers. Moreover, the subterfuge adopted by some employers of maintaining apprentices for long periods without giving them certificates and making them work as ordinary workers on low wages is to be deprecated. If Minimum Wage legislation is undertaken in India, there will have to be legal provision so as to prevent employers from taking shelter under this and avoiding the requirements of the minimum wage laid down. Secondly, it is necessary that the apprentices should be given some guarantee of employment after their training period is over. Of course, employers are justified in training a somewhat larger number of apprentices than their annual intake requires, to be on the safe side, but if they are not in a position to provide employment, they should at least help the apprentices to obtain employment elsewhere. In this connection, the creation of a wide-spread network of Employment

[1] *Report*, p. 50.

Exchanges may no doubt be helpful in placing such trained men in service. Thirdly, it appears the apprentices are not given certificates of efficiency as readily as is desirable. This leads to a sense of injustice and frustration among the apprentices. It is clear, therefore, that the conditions of work and their terms of employment cannot be left to be decided by the employers alone, and that there should be some regulation of such conditions and terms by a specific law of apprenticeship. In this connection we may quote the following recommendations from the Report of an Apprenticeship Committee of Kingston, Jamaica, regarding the enactment of a new law applicable generally to apprenticeship in all industries:[1]

> "It is recommended that the existing Apprenticeship Law should be repealed and replaced by a new law drafted in the light of present-day requirements and covering the measures applicable generally to apprenticeship in all industry; such a law should be framed in accordance with the Committee's other recommendations. The new law should include provisions for the establishment of an Apprenticeship Board in which would be vested responsibility for the administration of the law: this Board should comprise three representatives of employers, three representatives of workers and one representative from each of the following: the education Department, the Labour Department, and the social welfare agencies. The determinations of the Board, after approval by the Governor in Privy Council, should immediately acquire the force of law. The Education Department, the Labour Department, trade unions and employers should co-operate to set up vocational guidance committees throughout the Island and to improve the arrangements governing the selection and recruitment of apprentices. The minimum commencing age for apprentices should be 15 years. Probation periods should be prescribed, after consultation with representatives of workers and employers in the trade concerned, regulations under the proposed Apprenticeship Law. After similar consultation, the Board should be empowered to fix the period of apprenticeship in each occupation. Particulars of every apprenticeship and learnership entered into should be registered with the Board. The practice of premium apprenticeship should be rigidly controlled by the Board to prevent abuse. In collaboration with existing trade or minimum wage boards, or after consultation with the relevant employers' and workers' representatives, the Apprenticeship Board should assume the responsibility for determining minimum wage rates and controlling hours of work: the regulations it frames should include provision for annual vocation, sick leave and study leave for apprentices. Only employers duly approved by the Board should be allowed to indenture apprentices. The ratio of apprentices to skilled workers should be supervised with due regard to the future needs and absorptive capacity of the respective industries. Special Government welfare officers, attached to the Labour Department, should be empowered to enter premises where apprentices or learners are employed for the purpose of enquiring into and reporting on the general conditions under which the trainees are required to work."

[1] Report of the Apprenticeship Committee, December, 1943, Kingston, Jamaica, quoted in *International Labour Review*, March, 1945, p. 373.

VI—*Classes of workers and their Privileges.*

Workers are generally classified into permanent, temporary, badli, casual and probationers and apprentices. Classifications however, differ from industry to industry and from area to area. Broadly speaking, in the textile industry workers are classified as permanent, temporary and badli, while in other industries they are classified into permanent temporary and casual. In Madras, only in the cotton textile industry, workers are classified as *badli*, while in Bombay even in some industries outside the textile group some workers are classified as *badli*. A large majority of the factory workers in India fall under the permanent class, although during war the proportion of permanent workers has been upset in some of the war-expanded industries which had to take on a number of additional hands on a temporary basis. Temporary workers predominate in certain seasonal and unorganised industries, such as sugar factories, rice milling, shellac, cotton-ginning, etc. In such industries, however, there is a nuclear supervisory and technical staff consisting of engineers, mistries, firemen, etc., who continue on a permanent basis, while most of the unskilled workers are recruited on a temporary basis. The privileges of the permanent workers are not always clearly defined; but when they are so defined, they are generally as follows:—

(1) A right of 14 days' or one month's notice or pay in lieu thereof, in the event of dismissal;

(2) Casual leave of between 10 and 14 days in a year and in some concerns sick leave as well;

(3) Privilege leave, usually one month, after one year's service;

(4) Benefit of provident fund or gratuity;

(5) A right to take loans from the Co-operative Society of a concern, where one exists;

(6) A right to a service certificate when leaving the concern either on discharge or dismissal, and

(7) Sundry benefits such as grain concession, etc.

Temporary workers are those engaged on work of temporary nature and their number varies from time to time in accordance with the extent of such work on hand. In several establishments temporary workers also get casual leave, sick leave and privilege leave, but the leave period is usually shorter. Temporary workers are seldom admitted to the benefit of provident fund or gratuity schemes; but in some cases they are entitled to share profit bonuses.

Badli or substitute workers are a reserve labour force to replace permanent or temporary workers who are absent on account of sickness or other causes. The textile mills of Bombay and Sholapur have devised a system of *badli* control with the two-fold purpose of giving the badlis regular employment and eliminating the influence exercised by the jobber

in the recruitment of labour.[1] But in some other textile concerns, especially Nagpur, the *badli* system is still uncontrolled and the *badli* worker is favoured and cultivated with a view to creating "a second line of defence" in the event of strikes and lock-outs. No only this, but some employers are of the opinion that it is very charitable on their part to distribute work amongst the unemployed in this fashion. It is noticed that in some centres employers acually encourage the employment of *badlis* by sending out permanent or temporary workers on 'compulsory leave' so as to make room for the *badli* workers. Such use of the *badlis* system is highly objectionable. Of course, some amount of 'substitute labour is inevitable to fill the gap created by absenteeism, but the percentage of *badlis* should have some relationship with absenteeism. This is what the 'badli control' system effectively secures, and where such a system operates, the percentage of *badlis* is less than 10, while elsewhere it can be as high as 50.

Casual or *faltu* labour is that employed from day to day to undertake a particular extra piece of work. They do not qualify for any privileges or concessions and are paid off from time to time.

Generally when vacancies occur in the permanent cadres, preference for selection is given to *badli* or temporary worker. Selection, however, does not depend merely upon the length of service but upon ability. There are no definite rules regarding promotion of temporary or badli workers as permanent hands, and the workers' organisations have urged the necessity of such rules.

As stated earlier, there is generally no separate class of miners in the mining industry. Nor is there any classification of mines as temporary or permanent, as virtually all miners are temporary. In a few mines, however, a small proportion of workers, mainly supervisory staff are departmentally engaged and given certain privileges such as provident fund, gratuity, etc. These must be coonsidered as permanent. A very large percentage of miners return to mines regularly after their seasonal exodus and for all practical purposes they may be considered as permanent, although they do not enjoy many of the privileges of permaneney. Likewise, in the plantation industry, the percentage of workers permanently settled is small. In the North-East Indian plantations the percentage of workers permanently settled is large in the Surma Valley of Assam and in the Darjeeling district of Bengal. In the South Indian plantations, the normal period of engagement for plantation labour is ten months, after which the workers go back to their villages and may or may not return to the same estate though in actuality quite a large

[1]In this connection see Appendix VIII "Badli Control System"—which gives details of Recommendations made by the Millowner's Association, Bombay, to its constituents in regard to labour matters. The Assam Oil Co., Digboi, also has a pool system designed to avoid a high rate of turnover among temporary workers. The fluctuating needs for unskilled labour in different departments are met from a common pool of workers. The pool is under the direct control of the Labour Superintendent who maintains the strength of the pool at a particular level so as to meet all probable departmental requirements and at the same time cause no under-employment among workers. The pool men are permanent employees of the Company and having worked in different departments gain an opportunity of learning different types of work. Permanent vacancies in particular departments are frequently filled by appointing the pool men.

number do so return to the same estate and the percentage of such workers is between 60 and 90. In all seasonal factories and many of the unorganised industries the labour employed is, in the very nature of the case, temporary, recruited definitely for the working season. In the unorganised industries, moreover, there cannot be many privileges, such as provident fund, gratuity, etc., owing to the small scale of organisation. In some industries, however, the practice is prevalent of paying a 'retainer' to temporary workers at the end of the season or when the immediate work is over. Thus in the sugar industry, a retention fee is paid by some concerns to the workers, one half at the close of season and the other half at the beginning of the next season. Likewise, in the Madras Port Trust, a similar 'retainer' is paid to those workers who may be present at the end of the month.

A striking feature of Indian industry is the large number of women and children employed, especialy in the unorganised industries, mines (mainly on the surface) and plantations. In the cotton textile industry, about 12 per cent of the workers employed are women, a majority of whom are paid on the piece basis. In the woollen and silk industries and in seasonal factories, like cotton ginning and baling, rice mills, tea factories and coffee curing works, women are employed in large numbers. In unregulated factories like mica-splitting, bidi-making, shellac, glass, etc., both women and children are employed in large numbers. In mica and bidi factories a system of 'home work for women and children is also widely prevalent. As stated elsewhere, the employment of children in thes factories is often in flagrant violation of the Employment of Children (Amendment) Act of 1939. In manganese mines as they are mostly quarries or open workings,women workers are employed and form about 50 per cent of the total labour force. In plantations, over 40 per cent of the labour consists of women, and about 10 to 15 per cent of children. In the rubber estates, however, women and children are not so largely employed.

Classification of workers as supervisory and clerical staff, as ordinary workers, directly employed, and as contract labour, has also been made. Figures in the accompanying table (Table 38) give some idea regarding the distribution of workers as supervisory and clerical, departmental and contractors' labour. It will appear that for the few concerns for which information was available the proportion of clerical staff to total number of workers was higher in the chemical industry and in municipalities and lower in the minerals and metals and textile industries, while it was medium in other industries.

TABLE 38

Workers empoyed directly and through contracts and Supervisory Staff.

Industry.	Number of concerns covered.	Supervisory staff and clerks.	No. of workers employed direct.			No. of workers employed through contractors.			Total No. of workers.	Percentage of Supervisory and clerks to total workers.	Percentage of contractor's labour to total.
			Men.	Women.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Children.			
Textiles ...	7	671	16,000	1,320	...	363	6	...	18,360	3·65	2.01
Engineering ...	6	1,130	13,372	3,273	...	2,429	901	...	21,095	5·31	15·78
Chemical ...	2	215	1,283	249	...	...	...	...	1,532	14·03	...
Minerals and Metals ...	8	1,140	13,948	912	...	23,773	1,466	...	41,239	2·76	61.20
Ports and Dockyards ...	5	1,237	19,278	4,483	1,190	321	...	...	26,569	4·88	1·21
Railways ...	4	23,296	215,503	...	...	...	...	...	238,799	9·75	...
Municipalities ...	6	8,231	44,669	...	...	...	...	...	...	15·56	...
Miscellaneous ...	17	1,199	17,388	1,535	542	2,645	...	...	23,339	5·14	11.33

The Millowners' Association, Bombay, which has as members factories employing more than 200,000 textile workers, have stated that contract labour employed by members is only about 1 per cent of the total labour force and supervisory and clerical staff about 2 per cent. The proportion of contract labour is very high in the minerals and metals industry, as these largely depend upon such labour.

VII—*Length of Service of Operatives.*

Information about the length of service of operatives was available directly only from a few concerns. Apart from this figures have been available in the *ad hoc* survey Reports of the Committee. Both sets of figures have been analysed and set out in two tables given in Tables 39 and 40. It may be seen that Government and semi-government bodies and municipalities have a larger percentage of workers with long service. This is so, obviously because in these concerns the workers have a greater security of tenure. Among other groups of industries, engineering, chemicals, glass, gold mining, paper and printing presses appear to have a larger percentage of workers with long service, mainly because some of these industries themselves have been long-established ones, and also because the workers get the benefit of provident fund and gratuity. Another reason may be that in some of these industries there is a predominance of skilled workers who are generally more stable and also more dependent on industrial employment than workers in industries where less skill is required, as in seasonal industries and unregulated factories, the workers move from concern to concern and the majority of such workers have only less than one year's service. To some extent, length of service depends also on home ties and lack of suitable alternative employment in the neighbourhood. This is particularly true of gold-mining and certain textile centres. In these industries, owing to the predominance of unskilled labour (which is readily available), employers do not mind the high rate of turnover. Nevertheless, where any employer gives benefits in consideration of permanency such as provident fund, gratuity or pensions, the workers generally stick on to the same establishment. For instance, in the tobacco industry in Central and South India, labour turnover is very high and the average length of service of operatives very short in most concerns. But the Spencer & Co.'s factory at Dindigul has a pensions scheme for workers retiring after long service, and in this factory we find that the majority of them have over ten years' service.

TABLE 39.

Length of Service of Operatives in Various Industries.

[This Table is based on Ad Hoc Survey Reports].

(1) Industry and Province or Centre.	(2) Percentage of workers with service. Between 0 and 1 year.	(3) Between 1 and 5 years.	(4) Between 5 and 10 years.	(5) Over 10 years.
I. PERENNIAL FACTORIES.				
Cotton Textiles—Madras	18.3	55.4	8.0	38.3
Calcutta	47.5	41.0	11.5	—
Jute Textiles—Bengal	23.0	55.4	28.1	13.5
Madras-Nellimarla	8.6	21.4	—	70.0
Madras-Chitavalsah	19.0		31.0	50.0
Engineering—(i) General Engineering	20.0	39.0	18.0	23.0
(ii) Coach building and motor repairing	25.8	65.8	4.7	3.7
(iii) Electrical Engineering				
(a) Workshops	40.0	32.0	15.0	13.0
(b) Power Stations	22.0	30.0	17.0	31.0
(iv) Railway Workshops	11.0	55.0	11.0	43.0
Matches—Bengal	59.6	14.9	18.3	7.2
Printing Press—Lahore	39.3	25.3	10.2	25.2
Simla	7.7	45.5	9.1	37.7
Delhi	21.5	26.5	20.5	31.5
Aligarh	8.4	29.4	7.4	54.8
Allahabad	11.7	19.0	20.1	49.2
Patna	65.7	22.2	10.9	1.0
Calcutta	22.4	2.8	20.2	54.6
Madras	15.9	28.5	20.6	35.0
Bombay	13.2	29.5	16.5	40 8
Glass—United Provinces				
(i)	43.2	39.8	6.7	10.3
(ii)	24.0	46.1	21.2	8.7
Chemical and Pharmaceutical Works—Bengal	20.0	41.9	13.5	24.6
Madras	6.8	93.2	—	—
Bangalore	17.1	27.0	54.1	34.2
Paper—Bengal	20.9	43.6	13.5	22 0
Cigarette—Bengal	47.3	35.9	9.2	7 6
Bangalore	37.4	28.4	—	34.2
Saharanpur	14.0	62.0	18.0	6.0
II. SEASONAL FACTORIES.				
Sugar—Meerut	67.3	12.4	15.1	5.2
Gorakhpur	10.9	27.5	30.0	31.6
Champaran	77.3	17.7	4.8	0.2
Darbhanga	58.3	6.5	9.2	26.0
Madras	19.1	19.9	14.9	6.1
Cotton ginning and Bailing—C.P.	42.0	40.0	10.0	8.0
Sind	63.6	32.6	2.4	1.4
Bombay—Gujerat	49.2	34.9	7.5	8.4
Bombay—Hubbi	46.0	21.5	11.0	21.5

(1) Industry and Province *or* Centre.	(2) Percentage of workers with service. Between 0 and1 year.	(3) Between 1 and 5 years.	(4) Between 5 and 10 years.	(5) Over 10 years.
III. UNREGULATED FACTORIES.				
Shellac—Bengal	65.0	14.0	6.0	15.0
Cigar—Spencer's Factory Dindigual*	20.0	20.0	20.0	40.0
Trichinopoly	Nil	52.0	26.0	22.0
Carpet Weaving—Mirzapur	5.2	12.5	30.2	52.1
Amritsar	Nil	1.6	1.6	96.8
Tanneries—Cawnpore	64.6	29.3	3.9	2 2
Madras	18.7	48.7	19.1	13.5
Calcutta	20.0	63.8	15.3	0.9
IV. MINES.				
Gold—Mysore	12.0	17.0	30.5	40.5
Mineral Oil—Digboi (Assam)	19.0	63.0	10.0	8.0
Attock (Punjab)	25.0	45.0	20.0	10.0
Iron Ore—Noamundi	31.0	33.5	24.8	8.7
Gorumahisani	24.0	34.4	18.5	231
V. PLANTATIONS.				
South India—Tea (10 estates)	36.0	23.0	23.0	16.0
Rubber (9 estates)	52.0	38.0	8.0	22.0
VI. COMMUNICATIONS.				
Railways—Jodhpur State	29.6	28.3	18.2	23.6
Oudh and Tirhut	61.5	8.9	9.4	20.2
G.I.P.	19.1	34.2	8.0	38.7
Junagadh State	16.9	21.3	21.0	40.8
Barsi Light	12.7	17.1	12.8	57.4
Jamnagar Dwarka	34.7	28.5	15.7	21.1
Darjeeling Himalayan	18.7	27.5	13.2	40.6
Mewar State	45.4	28.2	9.7	16.7
Matheran Hill Light	2.3	15.9	37.5	44.3
Dehri Rohtas	40.7	7.4	—	51.9
M'cleod's	21.8	34.0	20.9	23.3
Jagadhari	28.9	25.7	15.9	31.5
Martin's Light	11.8	20.0	17.9	50.3
Trams and Buses—Karachi	21.3	20.0	30.5	28.2
Bombay	21.3	40.9	19.3	18.5
Madras	24.6	25.9	19.6	32.5
Dockyards—Bombay	16.6	65.6	8.4	9.4
Bengal	16.2	44.5	15.1	24.1
VII. OTHER TYPES OF LABOUR.				
Municipal Labour—Nagpur	12.0	15.0	23.0	54.0
Madras	3.5	31.7	23.2	61.6

*Is a regulated factory.

TABLE 40.

Length of service of Operatives in certain concerns.

[This table is based on replies to the General Questionnaire.]

Concerns.	Between 0 and 1 year of service.		Between 1 and 5 years of service.		Between 5 and 10 years.		Over 10 years.		Total Number of workers.
	Number.	Percent.	Number.	Percent.	Number.	Percent.	Number.	Percent.	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
I. *Government and Semi-Government bodies*									
Thompson College, Roorkee ...	4	13.3	4	13.3	8	26.6	14	46.8	30
Karachi Port Trust (Transport Dept.) ...	32	5.9	16	2.9	49	9.0	445	82.1	542
Govt. Sandalwood Oil Factory, Mysore ...	8	5.3	53	35.1	20	13.2	70	46.4	151
II. *Municipalities*									
Corporation of Madras ...	17	3.6	57	11.6	113	23.1	301	61.7	488
Ahmedabad Municipality ...	9	11.5	26	23.3	14	17.9	29	37.2	78
III. *Engineering*									
Patna Electric Supply Co., Calcutta ...	18	5.3	83	24.8	111	33.2	122	36.5	334
Jharia Electric Supply Co. ...	61	20	...	...	92	30	154	50	307
Tata Iron & Steel Co. ...	2,884	35.1	2,819	34.3	1,639	20.0	879	10.6	8,221
Bombay Gas Co. Ltd. ...	220	13.5	475	29.3	365	22.6	560	34.6	1,620
Octavius Steel Co. ...	21	6.6	69	21.6	90	28.6	144	45.8	314
Humy Pipe Co., Ltd. ...	...	70	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jyoti Ltd., Baroda ...	165	65.4	87	34.6	...	...	...	...	?

TABLE 40—*continued.*

Length of service of Operatives in certain concerns—continued.

[This Table is based on replies to the General Questionnaire.]

Concerns.	Between 0 and 1 year of service.		Between 1 and 5 years of service.		Between 5 and 10 years.		Over 10 years.		Total Number of workers.
	Number.	Percent.	Number.	Percent.	Number.	Percent.	Number.	Percent.	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
IV. *Textile*									
Bangalore Woollen, Cotton and Silk Mills	745	10.5	3,160	44.9	662	9.4	2,061	29.3	6,628
Trichinopoly Mills, Ltd. ...	250	38.4	300	46.3	100	15.3	...	...	650
V. *Minerals and Metals*									
Tinplate Co. of India, Ltd., Golmuri ...	228	6.4	1,393	36.8	732	20.6	1,282	36.2	3,545
Attock Oil Co., Ltd., Rawalpindi ...	421	25.0	759	45.0	337	20.0	168	10.0	1,685
Parasia Colliery, Parasia ...	207	76.4	64	23.6	...	...	...	...	271
VI. *Chemicals*									
Alembic Chemical Works, Baroda ...	293	47.3	212	34.2	54	8.7	60	9.6	619
Lever Brothers (India) Ltd., Bombay	45	4.8	512	54.7	314	33.5	64	6.7	935
VII. *Miscellaneous*									
Associated Cement Co., Ltd., Bombay ...	1,010	49.1	608	29.5	224	10.9	214	10.8	2,056
Asbestos Cement Co., Ltd., Bombay ...	290	37.0	250	31.9	200	25.5	8	1.0	748
Sone Valley Portland Cement Co., Japla ...	66	4.0	254	15.6	391	23.8	458	27.9	1169
Western India Match Co., Madras ...	197	24.9	39	4.9	296	37.4	260	32.8	792
Hindustan Vanaspati Manufacturing Co., Bombay.	400	25.2	876	55.5	257	16.2	45	3.0	1,578
Jeypore Sugar Co., Ltd., Rayagada ...	58	40.5	49	34.2	36	25.3	...	...	143
Titaghur Paper Mills Ltd., Bengal ...	234	10.6	1,364	61.9	606	27.5	...	...	2,204

VIII—*Absenteeism.*

For absenteeism and labour turnover full and reliable figures were not readily available. Very few industrial concerns collect figures of absenteeism and even these do not appear to have been based upon any standard definition of absenteeism. The difficulty in the past has been that no such definition has been uniformly suggested. The following definition of absenteeism, as stated in a recent circular of the Labour Department, Government of India, issued to the Provincial Governments appears suitable:—

> The absenteeism rate is defined as the total man-shifts lost because of absences as a percentage of the total number of man-shifts scheduled. For calculating the rate of absenteeism we require the number of persons scheduled to work and the number actually present. A worker who reports for any part of a shift is to be considered as present. An employee is to be considered scheduled to work when the employer has work available and the employee is aware of it, and when the employer has no reason to expect, well in advance, that the employee will not be available for work at the specified time. The following examples will illustrate the application of the principle. An employee on a regularly scheduled vacation should not be considered as scheduled to work or absent. The same is true during an employer-ordered lay-off. On the other hand, an employee who requests time-off at other than a regular vacation period should be considered as absent from scheduled work until he returns, or until it is determined that the absence will be of such duration that his name is removed from the list of active employees. After this date he should be considered as neither scheduled to work nor absent. Similarly, an employee who quits without notice should be considered as absent from scheduled work until his name is dropped from the active list, but preferably this period should not exceed one week in either case. If a strike is in progress workers on strike should be considered as neither scheduled to work nor absent, since data on time lost because of strikes are collected by other means."

We are afraid that the figures actually available to us have not been based on such a definition or any other uniform definition. If reliable figures of absenteeism are required, the obvious course for any statistical agency, whether sponsored by Government or a private body, would be to require employers first to maintain figures on the basis of a precise and uniform definition. Then alone would figures be comparable. Otherwise, as pointed out by the C.P. and Berar Textile Labour Enquiry Committee, 1941 in their Report at p. 51, there is bound to be considerable disparity. Thus, as between Bombay and Ahmedabad mills on the one hand and Nagpur on the other, the percentage of absenteeism, as calculated after including or excluding substitute or *badli* workers, appears to make a great difference, and while the figure for the Empress Mills of Nagpur is near about 30 per cent by excluding substitute labour, that for Ahmedabad mills is about 5 per cent. after including it. For this reason the figures reproduced in the Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee's Report (at p. 364) must be accepted with caution because the average figure for Ahmedabad for 1939 is extremely low 3.3%) as compared to that for Bombay (10.5%), just because in Ahmedabad, if an absent worker is substituted by a *badli* worker, absenteeism for him is *nil*. Detailed figures for percentage of absenteeism in various industries have been reproduced in Table 41. The figures must, however, be accepted with some caution for reasons stated before.

TABLE 41.

Extent of Absenteeism in Various Industries.

Industry	Centre	Province or State.	No. of Units Covered	Percentage Absenteeism in 1939	No. of Units Covered	Percentage Absenteeism in 1943	No. of Units Covered	Percentage Absenteeism in 1944
Cotton Textile ...	Bombay ...	Bombay ...	68	10.5	66	10.8	66	11.4
	Ahmedabad ...	„ ...	77	3·3	73	4.8	69	5·7
	Sholapur ...	„ ...	5	10.8	5	14·7	5	15.4
	Madura ...	Madras ...	2(b)	10.1(b)	2	11.1	2	13.6
	Bangalore ...	Mysore ...	1(c)	7.9(c)	1	10.4	a	a
	Calcutta ...	Bengal ...	6	8.9	6	6.9	a	a
	Nagpur ...	C.P. & Berar ...	a	a	2	21.0	a	a
	Akola ...	„ ...	a	a	2	22.0	a	a
Woolen Textile ...	Dhariwal ...	Punjab ...	a	a	a	a	1	17.0
	Amritsar ...	„ ...	a	a	a	a	6	10.0
	Srinagar ...	Kashmir ...	a	a	a	a	1	10.0
Silk Textile ...	Srinagar ...	Kashmir ...	a	a	a	a	1	7.0
Tea Plantations ...	d ...	Assam ...	1,128(e)	25.2	a	23·3	1,128(f)	24.5(f)
	Dooars(k) ...	Bengal ...	a	a	101	31.8	a	a
	Terai(k) ...	„ ...	a	a	20	27.7	a	a
	Darjeeling(k) ...	„ ...	a	a	33	27.6	a	a
Tea, Coffee and Rubber Plantations. ...	d ...	South India ...	a	a	a	a	49	17.5
Engineering (Coach bldg. and Motor repairing). ...	Bombay ...	Bombay ...	3	10.9	4	7·7	a	a
	Madras ...	Madras ...	1	2.6	3	6.9	a	a
Engineering (Electrical)	Tatanagar ...	Bihar ...	1	12.3	1	10.7	1	11.0
	Calcutta ...	Bengal ...	5	11.1	5	9·3	a	a
Railways ...	Darjeeling ...	Bangal ...	1	5.1	1	6.2	a	a
	Baroda ...	Baroda ...	a	a	a	a	1	10.0
	Jodhpur ...	Jodhpur ...	a	a	a	a	1	5 to 8

Gold Mining	...	Kolar	...	Mysore	...	4	14.35	4	12.7	a	a
Mineral Oil	...	Digboi	...	Assam	...	1	0.7	1	3.0	1	4.0
		Attock	...	Punjab	...	a	a	a	a	1	16.5
Printing Presses	...	Simla	...	Punjab	...	a	a	3	41.8	a	a
		Delhi	...	Delhi	...	9	27.8	9	27.8	a	a
		Calcutta	...	Bengal	...	20	7.4	20	9.0	a	a
		Madras	...	Madras	...	9	8.4	13	8.7	a	a
		Bombay	...	Bombay	...	17	7.7	21	7.0	a	a
Cement	...	Dalmianagar	...	Bihar	...	a	a	a	a	1	11.0
		Japla	...	Bihar	...	a	a	a	a	1	5.0
		Lakheri	...	Rajputana	...	a	a	a	a	1	15.0
		Surajpur	...	Patiala	...	a	a	a	a	1	7.0
Chemicals	...	Calcutta	...	Bengal	...	a	8.0	a	a	a	7.4
		Bangalore	...	Mysore	...	a	a	a	a	1	0.7
Shellac	...	d	...	Bengal	...	4	7.0		a	4	15.0
Glass	...	d	...	Bengal	...	4(g)	11.4(g)	4	11.9	a	a
		Bombay	...	Bombay	...	1(g)	12.0(g)		a	1(j)	7.1(j)
Rice Mills	...		...	Bengal	...	10(h)	32.2(h)	10(i)	35.8(i)	a	a
Paper	...	Sahranpur	...	U.P.	...	a	a	a	a	1	4.0

a Figures not available.
b Figures for 1941.
c Figures for 1938.
d Located in villages.
e Figures for 1939-40.
f Figures for 1943-44.
g Figures for August 1939.
h Figures for July 1939.
i Figures for January 1943.
j Figures for August 1944.
k Represents district.

The loss due to absenteeism is two-fold. Firstly, there is a distinct loss to workers, because the irregularity in attendance reduces their income, when "no work no pay" is the general rule. The loss to employers is still greater as both discipline and efficiency suffer. Moreover, either an additional complement has to be maintained throughout the year to meet this emergency or the industries have to depend solely on workers who present themselves at the gates and who are generally not up to the mark. The maintenance of an extra complement of workers leads to serious complications and evils. In particular, it provides a justification to the employer to provide sufficient work to the substitute workers, and as has been happening for example in the textile industry at Nagpur; the management have to 'play off' workers and force some of them to take 'compulsory leave'. This is resented by the workers' organisations, which to some extent legitimately, think that the 'compulsory leave' is only one method on the part of employers to maintain a 'second line of defence' in the event of strikes or lock-outs. On the other hand, it was represented to us by the employers that they had no option but to 'play off' workers, in view of the serious degree of absenteeism amongst them, and as they could not always anticipate their precise requirements of labour from day to day in certain departments, e.g., reeling and winding departments.

Causes of absenteeism.—The workers remain absent for various reasons of which some may be genuine but others not so. Sickness is responsible for a considerable part of the absenteeism at most places. Epidemics like cholera, small-pox and malaria always break out in severe form in most industrial areas. The low vitality of the Indian workers makes them an easy prey to such epidemics and bad housing and insanitary conditions of living aggravate the trouble. Broadly speaking there is a greater percentage of absenteeism during the night shifts than in the day shifts, owing to the greater discomfort of work during night time. Change-over of shifts which is permitted under the Standing Orders and effected in a majority of textile mills in Bombay, owing to the efforts of the Millowners' Association, has reduced absenteeism during night shifts. This method, however, is not practised in some of the industrial centres outside Bombay. Probably the most predominant cause of absenteeism however, is the frequent urge of the rural exodus. Other causes are industrial accidents, social and religious ceremonies, drinking, amusements, etc., Moreover, the level of absenteeism is comparatively high immediately after the pay day, when the workers either feel like having a "good time" or, in some cases, return to their villages to make purchases for the family and to meet them.

As regards measures to be adopted for absenteeism, we are inclined to agre with the Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee (Report, p. 364) that "proper conditions of work in the factory, adequate wages, protection from accident and sickness and facilities for obtaining leave for rest and recuperation constitute the most effective means of reducing absenteeism." Excessive fatigue and sweated conditions of work are bound to create a "defence mechanism" in the worker and if abiding results are to be obtained, the best policy would be to improve conditions of work and life for the workers and make them feel contented and happy. There is no doubt that the most effective way of dealing with absenteeism is to provide holidays with pay or even without pay and permit workers

to attend to their private affairs occasionally and thus regularise absenteeism instead of merely taking disiplinary action for it. Provision of suitable housing facilities in industrial towns would also go a long way in improving attendance.

IX—*Labour Turnover.*

Labour turnover may be defined as the rate of change in the working staff of a concern during a definite period. In other words, it is a measure of the extent to which old employees leave and new employees enter the service of the concern. Labour turnover is at once the cause and effect of instability of employment. It arises mainly from dismissals and resignations. Some amount of labour turnover, like frictional unemployment, is in any case inevitable and the *natural* turnover which arises due to retirement of aged employees and accession of fresh blood, may be not only unavoidable but also welcome to some extent. A higher rate of turnover is, however, harmful to the efficiency of the worker as well as to the quality and quantity of production. It is, moreover, a serious obstacle to the complete utilisation of a country's human and material resources, although in a country like India with vast masses of unemployed and under-employed labourers, the national loss due to labour turnover may be of the 'second order of smalls' so far as full utilisation of such resources is concered.

The statistical computation of labour turnover is somewhat complicated. Assuming that the total number of jobs available in a concern are constant, labour turnover can be measured by either taking into consideration the total separation rate, or the total accession rate, because the number of workers leaving the concern is likely to be the same as those joining it. Separation rate, again, can be split up into several sub-rates, according to the causes of separation. Thus, the usual practice is to have different sub-rates called "quit rate", "discharge rate", "lay-off rate", etc., In periods of fluctuating employment, however, the total number of jobs available in a concern may vary, and then there may be no correspondence between the separation rate and the accession rate. Secondly, the substitution of labour for short periods, when workers are absent with leave, by badli labour in some of the major industries in India presents another difficulty. In some centres of the cotton textile industry, for example, permanent workers are actually compelled to take "forced leave" and substitutes are appointed in their place. This gives an appearance of increased labour turnover. In reality, however, the permanent workers neither resign nor are dismissed, and it may be convenient to have a separate labour turnover rate computed for such *badli* workers as was done in the General Wage Census (Third Report) published by the Bombay Labour Office in 1937. Thirdly, the relation between labour turnover and absenteeism has to be clearly understood. If a worker remains on leave for, say, two to three months and turns up after an interval, the substitution that has taken place during that period will complicate the calculations. Fourthly, a worker who has left one concern and joined another in the same industry raises the labour turnover rates of both concerns, but this may not lead to inefficiency to the same extent as some other kinds of turnover.

In this connection, we are inclined to agree with the Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee (*Report*, p. 362) who observe: "Though a high rate of turnover exists in all organised industries in India, there are

no reliable data available concerning the extent of the turnover. Reliable and adequate records uniformly filled in and accompanied by careful and critical analysis are essential and without these the percentages of labour turnover have little practical value." Reliable and adequate records, however, are not a matter entirely in the hands of investigators, as much depends upon the material available from the employers. The Committee endeavoured to collect such statistics as were readily available, and these have been presented in the Ad Hoc Survey Reports on various industries, but the statistical value of the figures may not be great, for the reason that the figures supplied by employers were neither uniform nor accurate nor based upon a clear definition of labour turnover. An attempt was made to obtain figures, at least for the separation rate, in a simple form both in the General Questionnaire and in the Ad Hoc Survey Questionnaire. The results have not been very encouraging, and for what they are worth, have been given in the *ad hoc* survey Reports, and summarised in Tables 42 and 43 here. It is clear that if very accurate and reliable figures of labour turnover are required, this will (as in the case of Absenteeism) necessitate the institution of a special enquiry, or the maintenance of a special statistical organisation, for this purpose among others, so as to furnish statistics of labour turnover, both for separation and for accession. Broadly speaking, however, we are inclined to believe that the figures do give some sort of general idea as to the extent of labour turnover in different industries.

Among the causes of labour turnover, the chief are resignations and dismissals. Resignations may be due to a variety of reasons such as dissatisfaction with working conditions, insufficient wages, bad health, sickness, old age, family circumstances and, last but not least, exodus to the village for agricultural operations. The village nexus is still strong in certain industries, especially in mining, South Indian plantations, cotton textiles (except in Bombay), jute textiles, and in many of the unorganised industries, like rice-milling, shellac, mica-splitting, etc. Workers who make a periodical exodus to the village for agricultural operations very often regard industrial employment as merely a second string to their bow. As they are afraid that they may not get enough leave for such long absences—and in most cases this fear is justified—they just resign their jobs and go home, and after having finished agricultural work return and join some other concern or less frequently while away their time in the village, living on the meagre savings of their previous employment. Sometimes, in a joint family, adult workers may do industrial work by turns thus maintaining contact with both industry and agriculture. Dismissals, on the other hand, appear to be a lesser cause of labour turnover. Dismissals may be due to disciplinary action in cases of inefficiency, insubordination, participation in strikes, misconduct, etc. Victimisation of workers who interest themselves in trade union activities has also been alleged to be a fruitful cause of dismissals. Labour Turnover, especially among temporary workers, is also accounted for by the discharge of the workers when a particular piece of work for which they have been taken on is completed. As stated earlier, apart from dismissals and resignations the *badli* system has also contributed to a high labour turnover. Our enquiries were conducted at a time when labour turnover was likely to be at its highest level owing to another cause as well. This was the urgent and

competing demands created by war work in industries, defence works and military recruitment. The attraction of high wage rates and other benefits have tempted workers to migrate from factory to factory and also from one province to another. In some of the industries connected with war production, the competition amongst employers has been so great that there has been a scramble for securing labour. This scramble has shown itself in such activities as sending out recruiting agents to entice away labour employed by other employers by promises of tips and advances. Very often, the bitter has been bitten and a worker who has accepted a substantial advance already has decamped elsewhere for a still bigger advance!

Let us now turn to the extent of labour turnover in various principal industries. As already stated accurate figures for labour turnover have not been available and as collection of such figures implies considerable planning on the part of the statistical agency as well as the employers, we can hardly find fault with what has been placed at our disposal. The figures (which are for *separation* rates) have been presented in Tables 42 and 43. It would appear that the cotton textile industry in Bombay has a somewhat higher monthly turnover rate than in Madura, Calcutta, Nagpur, Akola or Lahore, for the probable reason that the number of mills in Bombay is far greater than anywhere else and it is possible for workers to move from mill to mill. It must be remembered, however, that the figures refer only to permanent workers, and no account has been taken of *badli* labour, which predominates especially at Nagpur and Madura. In the engineering group, the rates are fairly high, especially at Calcutta and Lahore. The highest rates for any industry are those recorded for the glass industry, wherein labour has proved extremely mobile, owing to scarcity of trained men and the anxiety of employers to obtain such men at any cost from anywhere. In the mining section, iron ore has a higher range of rates than gold, mainly because the former requires much less skill than the latter, and also because labour supply (mainly from tribal sources) in the iron ore areas is much more plentiful than in Mysore. In the mineral oil industry, the rates appear to be very high. Thus, at Digboi, Assam, the rate has been as high as 18 per cent in 1939 and 28 per cent in 1943; while at Attock in the Punjab, the rates are still higher in the refinery, having been 93 per cent in 1943. This is probably due to the fact that temporary workers, who are included in the calculation, are unstable because of the counter attraction of military employment in the town. In the other industries such as printing presses, woolen textiles, cement, potteries, rice mills, etc., the rates do not on the whole appear to be excessive, except for particular localities. As regards plantations, owing to the peculiar system of recruitment and repatriation prevalent, there is no point in collecting any data for labour turnover.

The measures to be adopted for reduction of labour turnover imply a positive policy requiring concerted action. Unfortunately, however, it is to be feared that the majority of employers are not alive to the advantages of such reduction, especially in the case of unskilled labour. There is ordinarily such a plethora of unskilled labour available in most areas during peace time, that the employers (except in a few organised industries or where workers are well organised themselves) prefer to have their own way by playing off one labourer against another so as to be

able to obtain cheap labour. It is not realised that even the so-called unskilled labourer by continuous practice acquires an efficiency in any particular job, an efficiency which is bound to benefit both the employer and the worker. The agencies of recruitment in most industries provide much scope for corruption and bribery, and the recruiting agents, whether called sirdars, jobers, *kanganies, muccadams, mistries,* or by any other name, stand to gain by recruiting more and more men and dismissing old ones, and pocketing tips at each time. Thus, it will be clear that the problem of labour turnover is to a large extent bound up with that of recruitment. Apart from this, any measures conducive to the workers' economic advancement and welfare, as well as measures intended to provide security of employment to workers are bound to mitigate the evils of turnover, by reducing the anxiety of the worker to make frequent exoduses to the village and to search for what is often the mirage of better employment and higher remuneration. In this connection, the following remarks of the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee (*Report*, p. 363) are worth quoting:—

"Improvement in methods of recruitment is one of the principal remedies for excessive labour turnover. The *badli* control system introduced by the Millowners' Association, Bombay, has to some extent applied this remedy. But more radical and effective methods such as establishment of employment exchanges, restriction of the powers of the jobber and organisation of a personnel department are required. Improvment of working conditions, adoption of an enlightened policy of management in respect of wages, transfers and promotion, leave and holidays, provision of facilities for education and training, promotion of welfare work, introduction of unemployment and sickness insurance, of gratuities and pensions—these will contribute to make the labour force more stable than it is at present. Not the least important factors contributing to stability will be the attitude of the employers to workers' organistaions and the provision of effective machinery for the ventilation and redress of the grievances of the workers."

TABLE 42.

Extent of Labour Turnover in Various Industries (1939, 1943 and 1944).

(Total Monthly Separation Rates only).

Industry.	Centre.	Province.	No of Units Covered.	Monthly Percentage of Labour Turnover in 1939.	No. of Units Covered.	Monthly Percentage of Labour Turnover in 1943.	No. of Units Covered.	Monthly Percentage of Labour Turnover in 1944.
Cotton Textile ...	Bombay ...	Bombay ...	68(b)	1.8(b)	66(c)	2.1(c)	a	a
	Madura ...	Madras ...	a	a	a	a	1	0.2
	Calcutta ...	Bengal ...	a	a	a	a	7	0.6
	Nagpur ...	C.P. & Berar ...	a	a	2	0.2	a	a
	Akola ...	,, ...	a	a	2	0.3	a	a
	Lahore ...	Punjab ...	a	a	a	a	3	0.4
Woollen Textile ...	Bangalore ...	Mysore State ...	a	a	a	a	1	0.4
Engineering ...	Madras ...	Madras ...	a	a	a	a	3(d)	1.6(d)
(Coach Building	Bombay ...	Bombay ...	3	1.2	a	a	6(d)	3.1(d)
and Motor Repairing)	Calcutta ...	Bengal ...	7	1.7	a	a	7(d)	1.6(d)
Engineering ...	Madras ...	Madras ...	a	a	a	a	3	...
(Electrical	Bombay ...	Bombay ...	3	0.5	6	2.1	a	a
Workshops)	Calcutta ...	Bengal ...	6	2.6	6	3.6	a	a
	Tatanagar ...	Bihar ...	1	0.5	1	1.7	a	a
Engineering ...	Madras ...	Madras ...	a	a	a	a	1	...
(Power Stations) ...	Bombay ...	Bombay ...	7	1.6	11	1.4	a	a
	Calcutta ...	Bengal ...	4	0.4	4	1.1	a	a
	Lahore ...	Punjab ...	1	9.8	1	11.2	a	a
Gold Mining ...	Kolar ...	Mysore State ...	4	1.8	a	a	4	1.6
Printing Presses ...	Simla ...	Punjab ...	a	a	3	1.0	a	a
	Delhi ...	Delhi ...	9	1.2	9	1.6	a	a
	Patna ...	Bihar ...	a	a	12	4.7	a	a
	Calcutta ...	Bengal ...	12	0.2	12	0.2	a	a

Mineral Oil	...	Digboi	...	Assam	...	1(b)	18.0(b)	1	28.0	a	a
Mineral (Refinery)	...	Attock	...	Punjab	...	a	a	1	93.0	1	133a.
Mineral (Oilfields)	...	,,	...	,,	...	2	4.4	a	a	2	3.5
Cemen	...	Dalmianagar	...	Bihar	...	a	a	a	a	1	2.0
		Japla	...	,,	...	a	a	a	a	1	0.4
		Lakheri	...	Rajputana	...	a	a	a	a	1	4.6(c) 0.9(f)
Iron ore	...	Gorumahiani		Bihar	...	1	6.5	a			
		Gua	...	Bihar	...	1	0.1	a	a	1	0.4
Potteries	...	Calcutta	...	Bengal	...	a	a	3	0.6	a	a
		Gwalior	...	Gwalior States	...	1	3.7	a	a	1	5.9
Dockyards	...	Bombay	...	Bombay	...	a	a	a	a	6	1.8
Rice Mills	...	Calcutta	...	Bengal	...	9	2.6	a	a	a	3.1
Glass	...	Firozabad	...	United Provinces		a	a	a	a	1	2.1
		(g)	...	Bengal	...	4(h)	68.0	4(i)	98.0(i)	a	a
		Bombay	...	Bombay	...	1	0.3	1	0.9	a	a
		Madras	...	Madras	...	a	a	a	a	1(j)	17.8(j)
Chemicals	...	Bombay	...	Bombay	...	6	2.5	11	2.9	a	a

(a) Figures not available.
(b) Figures for 1938.
(c) Figures for July, 1943.
(d) Figures for 1943-44.
(e) Casual labour.
(f) Permanent workers.
(g) Centre not known.
(h) Figures for August, 1939.
(i) Figures for January, 1943.
(j) Figures for August, 1944.

TABLE 43.

Monthly Percentage of Labour Turnover in some Concerns for the year 1938 *and* 1943

(Total Annual Separation Rates only).

Concern.	Type of Industry.	Province.	Average No. of workers employed in 1938.	No. of workers who left in 1938.	Percentage labour turnover.	Average No. of workers employed in 1943.	No. of workers who left in 1943	Percentage labour turnover.
The Bangalore Cotton Woollen and Silk Mills, Ltd.	Textile ...	Mysore State ...	3,637(b)	175(b)	0.37(b)	6,800	964	1.18
The H.M.I. Dockyard, Bombay.	Dock labour	Bombay ...	a	a	a	11,000(c)	183(c)	0.14(c)
The Karachi Port Trust.	Port Labour ...	Sind ...	1,597	6	0.03	2,996	.05	.0.29
The Bengal Nagpur Railway.	Railway ...	Bengal ...	a	a	a	8,467	612	0.60
The O. and T. Railway	Railway ...	United Provinces	a	a	a	10,068	534	0.44
The Associated Cement Co. Ltd.	Cement ...	Bombay ...	1,093	90	0.68	1,793	152	0.70
The Asbestos Cement Co. Ltd.	Cement ...	Bombay ...	1,305	...	...	757	39	0.42
The Lever Brothers (India) Ltd.	Chemicals ...	Bombay ...	676(b)	267(b)	3.17(b)	944	214	1.89
The Hindustan Vanaspati Manufacturing Co. Ltd.	Chemicals ...	Bombay ...	a	a	a	1,150(c)	120(c)	0.86(c)

The Tinplate Co. of India, Ltd.	Engineerin	Biharg	...	2,994	70	0.19	3,206	304	9 79
The C.P. Syndicate Ltd. (Junardeo Colliery)	Mines	Central Provinces	...	a	a	a	120	8	0.55
The Mysore Sugar Co. Ltd.	Sugar	Mysore States	...	a	a	a	1,242	189	1.26
The Orissa Mineral Development Co. Ltd.	Miscellaneous	B ngal	...	a	a	a	2,250	1,282	4·75
The Karachi Steam Roller Flour Mills Ltd.	Miscellaneous	Sind	...	a	a	a	200	7	0.29
The Ganesh Flour Mills Ltd.	Miscellaneous	Punjab	...	90	92	8.51	218	169	6.11
The Corporation of Madras.	Miscellaneous	Madras	...	384	18	0.39	394	21	0.44
The Attock Oil Co. Ltd.	Miscellaneous	Punjab	...	a	a	a	1,384	105	0.65
The Furniture Factory, Baroda	Miscellaneous	Baroda State	...	61	7	0.95	51	11	1.80

(*a*) Figures not available.
(*b*) Figures for 1939.
(*c*) Figures for 1944.

Chapter V.

EMPLOYMENT OF LABOUR—II.

I—*Standing Orders, Rules and Agreements.*

An industrial worker has the right to know the terms and conditions under which he is employed and the rules of discipline which he is expected to follow. Broadly speaking, in Indian industry the rules of service are not definitely set out and, like all unwritten laws, where they exist they have been very elastic to suit the convenience of employers. No doubt, several large-scale industrial establishments have adopted standing orders and rules to govern the day-to-day relations between the employers and workers; but such standing orders or rules are merely one-sided. Neither workers' organisations nor Government are generally consulted before these orders are drawn up and more often than not, they have given the employers the upper hand in respect of all disputable points. In this connection, the Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee (*Report*, p. 44) observe:—

> "It is not sufficient to bring to the notice of the workers conditions on which they are employed. It is neither desirable nor practicable to limit the operation of democratic principles to government and keep industry for ever in old and decaying forms of authority. It is necessary to associate the workers with the making of these rules."

The first legislative enactment in India which incidentally sought to regulate the making of standing orders was the Bombay Industrial Disputes Act, 1938, which (in Chapter V, Section 26) provided that "every employer in respect of any industry or occupation to which this section has been applicable shall within two months from the date of such application, submit to the Commissioner of Labour, for approval in such manner as may be prescribed, standing orders regulating the relations between him and his employees with regard to industrial matters mentioned in Schedule I." The matters mentioned are as follows: (i) Classification of employees, e.g., permanent, temporary, apprentices, probationers, *badlis*, etc.; (ii) manner of notification to employees of periods and hours of work, holidays, pay days and wage rates; (iii) shift working; (iv) attendance and late coming; (v) leave and holidays, and conditions, procedure and authority to grant these; (vi) liability to search and entry into premises by certain gates; (vii) temporary stoppages of work and rights and liabilities of employers and employees arising therefrom; (viii) termination of employment, and notice to be given by employer and employee; (ix) suspension or dismissal for misconduct and the acts or omissions which constitute misconduct; (x) means of redress for employees against unfair treatment or wrongful exaction on the part of the employer or his agent or servant. Provision is also made in the Act for consulting workers' interests. Section 26(2) reads: "On receipt of such standing orders the Commissioner of Labour shall, after making such enquiry as he deems fit and after consulting all interests concerned in the industry, settle the said standing orders". There are also provisions for appeal by any aggrieved party against the settlement of the orders by the Labour Commissioner to the Industrial Court which is to finally settle the orders.

The textile mills in Bombay Province follow the standing orders as finally settled by the Industrial Court under the Industrial Disputes Act, for operatives, technical assistants and clerks. The South Indian Millowners' Association have also a set of standing orders but not all the member-mills strictly adhere to them. The standing orders drawn up by the Employers' Association of Northern India, Cawnpore, are more widely followed by textile mills in Cawnpore. Several individual mills, such as the Bangalore Cotton, Woollen and Silk Mills, the Trichinopoly Mills, the Hira Mills, Ujjain, the Shree Sayaji Mills, Baroda, the Sidhraj Mills,, Baroda, and the Delhi Cloth Mills, also have their own standing orders. The Indian Jute Mills' Association, Calcutta, has drafted certain rules regarding conditions of service for operatives in jute mills which are more or less on the lines of Schedule I to the Bombay Industrial Disputes Act. Rules regarding the maintenance of Service Cards, Safety Rules and Prevention of Accidents and the conditions of occupation of houses provided by the employers are also incorporated. The jute mills in Cawnpore have similar rules and regulations of service. The majority of the engineering concerns in the Bombay area have standing orders based on those introduced by the Bombay Millowners' Association, while in Eastern India only a few concerns have introduced such standing orders. The matter is, however, engaging the attention of the Indian *Engineering Association which hopes to issue Standing Orders in the near future. The Tata Iron and Steel Co., Jamshedpur, have service rules to govern holidays, leave, classification of workers, etc., but they have no standing orders. The ordnance factories in India have standing orders, which, among other things, lay down procedure regarding appointments, reversion and discharges. Apprenticeship rules and the manner of trade tests are also defined. Some large concerns, like Lever Brothers (India) Ltd., Tata Oil Mills, Parry & Co., the Hindustan Vanaspati Manufacturing Co., the Mysore Sugar Co., the Mysore Sandalwood Oil Co., The Tobacco Manufacturers (India) Ltd., etc., and a few dockyards such as Alcock Ashdown, in Bombay and Karachi, and the Karachi Port Dockyard, have standing orders. On the other hand, in seasonal factories and unregulated industries and in mines and plantations, generally speaking, there are no standing orders and the decision of the management is final. In the Government Railways, the Railway Servants' Conduct Rules, (Appendix XI of the *State Railways Code*, Vol. I) and Discipline and Appeal Rules govern the relationship between employers and workers. There are service agreements in other Railways. All standing orders are more or less similar to Schedule I to the Bombay Industrial Disputes Act.

Workers' Organisations have suggested that legislative provision should be made for the preparation and approval of standing orders by Government authority in consultation with workers' organisations and that provision should also be made for appeals to some higher authority in the event of dispute. A proposal for provision being made requiring every factory employing 250 or more workers to have a set of standing orders, somewhat on the same lines as Chapter V of the Bombay Industrial Disputes Act, was discussed at the Fifth Labour Conference (September 1943). The memorandum for discussion set out that the essential thing was to define working conditions on a clearly recognised contractual basis and to have that basis approved by the Commissioner of Labour or some such authority. A contract in the form of standing orders was

also considered necessary before the penalty provided for under Section 9 of the Payment of Wages Act could be enforced for striking without notice. The members were generally in favour of standing orders being given statutory rather than contractual force, contravention being punishable equally with other offences under the Factories Act. It was decided to have a statutory authority to deal with the disagreement of employers with the Labour Commissioner or disputes arising out of standing orders themselves. Labour delegates to the Conference suggested that standing orders should cover, among other things, questions of security of service. In view of the facile manner in which workers can be dismissed or employed at the sweet will of the employer, this seemed a legitimate demand. The Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee have commented upon this question of security of employment as follows:—

> "There is no fear which haunts an industrial worker more constantly than the fear of losing his job as there is nothing which he prizes more than economic security. The fear of being summarily dismissed for even a slight breach of rules of discipline or for interesting himself in trade union activity disturbs his peace of mind. It is a notorious fact that dismissals of workers have been the originating causes of not a few industrial disputes and strikes. The provision of effective safeguards against unjust and wrong dismissals is, therefore, in the interest as much of the industry as of the workers."

The evil of unfair dismissal or indefinite suspension unfortunately appears to be common in many industries. The power to employ and dismiss being largely in the hands of jobber and his other namesakes, and the manager's consent being a mere formality, this evil has given rise to considerable corruption in industry. Standing order No. 22 for cotton mills in Bombay, as settled by Industrial Court, lays down detailed procedure in connection with suspensions and dismissals of workers found guilty of misconduct. It may be worth while to adopt a similar provision in the standing orders for other industries. The (Central) Trade Disputes Act, 1929, unlike the Bombay Industrial Disputes Act, 1938, makes no mention of standing orders, while these form an integral part of the Bombay Act. The question whether, if statutory authority was required for standing orders, provision should be made under the Trade Disputes Act or through separate legislation was discussed at the Sixth Labour Conference, in October, 1944. As a consequence, the Government of India now propose to introduce a separate Bill, entitled the "Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act 1946" in the next session of the Legislature. The proposed Bill will remove a long-standing lacuna in labour legislation in India.

II—*Service or Registration Cards.*

In the management of labour, the use of service cards or registration cards is important. Such cards enable the management to decide questions of promotion and dismissal and to keep the worker on the path of efficiency and regularity. For programmes of social insurance or for statistical enquiries, moreover, such cards are valuable in assessing the financial liabilities of insurance funds and in estimating statistical quantities, such as age, length of service, turnover, etc. The utility of service cards is also great for employment service under Employment

Exchanges, which require all possible information about the history of each case coming to them. Generally speaking, a large number of enlightened employers who have introduced any system in their labour management favour the maintenance of service cards. The view taken by the workers' organisations, however, is that while they have nothing to say against the employers maintaining service cards or registers, they should not be allowed to record in these cards any remarks regarding the workers' conduct which are likely to be quoted against him when seeking fresh employment. In other words, the employer should not be allowed to victimise a worker permanently by attacking his reputation. Broadly speaking, this view is plausible, and the value of service cards in the eyes of other employers or employment agencies would be enhanced, if, as far as possible, derogatory remarks are not inserted in them.

The Millowners' Association, Bombay, towards the end of 1938, recommended to member mills in the City and Island of Bombay the adoption of a system of service cards in respect of all permanent workers employed by them. The items of information in the service card were standarised and a uniform card was evolved for the purpose. A copy of this card is reproduced in Appendix IX. This system has now been adopted by most of the mills in Bombay. If any permanent worker, especially a jobber or supervisor resigns, or is dismissed, or promoted, the change is immediately notified to the Association by Members. In addition, the Millowners' Association have also recommended that requests from old workers for service certificates should be sympathetically considered and that particular care should be taken by mills in giving reliable information in such certificates. Mills are required to employ such retrenched workers carrying service certificates in preference to outside labour.

Service record cards are maintained by most textile mills and engineering concerns and by the larger factories belonging to the perennial group. Seasonal and unregulated factories do not, as a rule, maintain service records. In mines and plantations, likewise, except rarely, no records of service are maintained. Records are maintained in several railways, dockyards and ports and many municipalities have also adopted this system. We have had an opportunity of examining service records of different concerns, and we feel that the information supplied is extremely useful. There is, however, no general pattern, and each concern chooses those items of information which it is likely to find useful for its own management. Broadly speaking, details are given regarding name, address, religion and caste, year of birth, languages known by the worker, degree of literacy, record of past service in the concern, record of service in other concerns, the name of immediate past employer, particulars of technical education, if any, identification marks, occupational changes, periods of leave granted with reasons for taking leave, total absence from work, wages and earnings month by month, and disciplinary action taken against the worker, such as warnings, suspension, fines, etc. Apart from this, information regarding accidents and compensation paid in respect of them, increments and promotions, etc., are also given. The information falls mainly under two parts, one dealing with the more or less permanent features such as name, father's name, surname, age, religion, caste, literacy; native place, etc., and the other with occupational changes, wages, attendance, leave, etc. In other words, one part deals

with information which is non-variable and the other with that which is variable. Both from the point of view of labour management and from that of future organisation of Employment Exchanges and social insurance, it will be better if the service record cards are maintained on a uniform basis at least so far as the minimum information required is concerned, employers being left free to make additional entries, if they think necessary. We also feel that it is worth consideration whether statutory provision should not be made requiring employers to maintain proper service records of their employees.

III.—*Graded and Incremental Promotions*

As the Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee remark "In all progressive industrial countries it is recognised that one of the effective methods of securing contentment among workers and creating loyalty to the organisation is the existence of a definite and well-planned system of transfers and promotions.[1]" Promotions may be defined as a rise in status or wages or both. Promotion may mean a movement from one category to another and higher category or from a lower grade to a higher grade within the same category, and increase in income due to graded promotion is to be distinguished from increase in income due to an incremental promotion, where a worker gets higher and higher income in the same grade by periodical automatic increments.

In the textile industry there are usually no incremental scales for the workers, except for supervisory staff and officers. Graded promotions are sometimes given to others as well, but workers have justifiably complained that more often than not such promotions depend upon favouritism and bribery than on considerations of merit or seniority of service. In the engineering industry, both incremental and graded promotions are more common especially for skilled workers and artisans. Incremental scales of this type are also prevalent in other industries, such as chemicals, potteries, cigarette factories, dockyards, etc. In seasonal factories and unregulated industries and in mines and plantations, barring a few places, there is generally neither graded nor incremental promotion. For supervisory and skilled work in mines and plantations, and for skilled work in seasonal factories, incremental promotions are somtimes given. There is no regular system of promotion in some of the smaller Railways owned by Companies. The channels of promotion in Government Railways are given in Appendix II of the *State Railway Establishment Code*. Vol. I. In most tramway and bus companies also there are incremental promotions.

The most common complaints regarding promotions, whether graded or incremental, are that in several cases the initial salaries as well as the periodical increments are small and that in some cases the increments come to a dead stop after the maximum in the scale is reached. Occasionally even annual or biennial increments, where these are given, are not automatic but depend on the discretion of the manager. Likewise, in regard to promotions from one grade to another and from one category to another, numerous complaints arise. Both the Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Coommittee and the Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee have stated

[1] *Report*, p. 359.

that labour witnesses complained loudly about the limited scope of promotions and about corruption and favouritism in this regard.[1] It was alleged by labour representatives that the plea that promotions are given 'solely on merit' is a convenient cloak behind which corruption and favouritism are rife. Especially in joint-stock companies, the possibilities of these things happening are far greater than in concerns owned by private employers.

In respect of promotion, broadly speaking, there are two main principles, viz., merit and seniority. If a system of promotion is to be scientific and conducive to efficient management of labour, it is no doubt necessary that it should be as impartial as possible, and that both merit of a worker and the length of his service should be taken into consideration. But to say this is to place the responsibility upon the management to decide the question of promotion and to accept the autonomy of the employer in this respect. Very often the jobber or some junior officer decides the questions of promotion in his own right, without reference to the higher authorities. Even though such jobbers or junior officers may be required to report all promotions, especially those in which merit rather than seniority has been taken into consideration, to the manager or employer, it is unlikely that the latter would be going against the wishes of the former. The antithesis between the two principles of merit and seniority is thus deep-rooted and inevitable. It can partly be mitigated by drawing a distinction between incremental and graded promotions and by entitling the worker in any case to get incremental promotions automatically by dint of seniority, and by leaving graded promotions to be decided by reference to merit. It is impossible to lay down any precise law or rules rgarding promotion, however, and this has to be left mainly to the good sense of the employer. The essential point is that incremental or graded promotions, granted without considering either seniority or real merit, merely at the whim of the employer or the manager, or under a system lending itself to corruption or favouritism, must cause a lot of heart-burning and unrest, and this must be scrupulously avoided by the employers themselves.

IV—*Holidays and Leave*

The value of holidays in maintaining and increasing industrial efficiency as well as in improving the employer-worker relations cannot be over-emphasised. The higher rate of absenteeism and the large percentage of labour turnover, which are characteristic of most of the Indian industries, are in a large measure attributable to the absence of an adequate provision for holidays and leave. The Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee aptly remark: "Tropical climate, poor diet and physique of the workers and insanitary and unattractive conditions in which they live, combine to make holidays with pay even more necessary in India than in the West. As the vast majority of workers are drawn from the villages with which they maintain the closest connection and would therefore probably spend the holidays there, there will not only be benefit to their health but also a feeling of happiness from an annual

[1] *Report* of the Bombay Committee, p. 359; and *Report* of the Bihar Committee, p. 52

sojourn, however, brief.[1]'' The Royal Commission[2] considered that the employers should recognise the need and value of holidays and should actually encourage workers to apply for definite periods of leave, with a promise that on return they would be able to resume their old work, and that even leave without pay or allowance might be a great advance on the present system. The Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee fully endorsed this view and onsidered that the Standing Orders (Nos. 11 and 12), as determined by the Bombay Industrial Court, according to which workers qualify for a month's privilege leave and also to ten days' casual leave with or without pay after completion of twelve months' service, were an adequate provision for cotton textile mills. In actuality, however, very few concerns grant such leave *with pay*. The Cawnpore Labour Enquiry Committee, likewise, recommended the granting of 15 days' privilege leave with pay to workers on completion of one years' service. Recently, the Punjab Government, in their Trade Employees Act, provided for 14 days' leave with pay in a year or seven days in six months, for all assistants in shops and commercial establishments. The movement for holidays with pay has thus gathered momentum.

In 1936 the International Labour Conference adopted the Holidays with Pay Convention. This Convention was not ratified by the Government of India, who, in 1937, announced that it was impracticable, to extend the provisions to all establishments mentioned in the Convention. However, recently a Bill for the grant of Holidays with Pay was introduced in the Legislature and passed. The Holidays with Pay Act has taken effect from the 1st January 1946. The Act applies to all perennial factories but not to seasonal factories. It ensures compensatory holidays to workers deprived of the weekly rest by an exemption from the provisions of Section 35 of the Factories Act, 1934. The Act goes further than the I.L. Convention and provides that "every worker who has completed a period of twelve months'' continuous service in a factory shall be allowed, during the subsequent period of twelve months, holidays for a period of 10 or, if a child, 14 consecutive days.'' The holidays can be accumulated for a period of two years. For these holidays payment is to be made "at a rate equivalent to the daily average of the worker's wages for the days on which he actually worked during the three preceding months.'' Half the wages for the holidays will be paid before the worker proceeds on leave and the balance on his return. Provision is also made in the Act entitling the worker to get his wages for holidays in the event of his being discharged from employment before he was allowed the holidays or even if he quits his employment having been refused such holidays. This Act fulfils a long-felt demand for holidays. But further reform is necessary in two directions. Firstly, the law must provide for accumulation of leave for a much longer period than two years, say five years. Secondly, facilities should be granted to extend such holidays with pay by permitting the workers to tack on holidays without pay for a further period which may be, say, twice as much as the holidays with pay due. However, the success of the measure will depend to a very great extent on its actual enforcement, which will be possible by adequate inspection and responsible co-operation on the part of employers. It

[1] *Report*, p. 26.

[2] *Report*, pp. 26 27.

must be noted, moreover, that the Act applies only to perennial factories and its early extension to industries other than factory industries might be desirable.

It may be convenient here to give a broad picture of the extent to which holidays with pay and leave are granted in different industries. It may be stated that this differs from industry to indusry and makes any generalisations difficult. In the cotton textile industry, apart from Sunday, which is a holiday, with pay for permanent and without pay for daily-rated workers, and a few festival holidays at different times of the year, varying from 3 to 7 in number, which are granted everywhere, a few concerns grant casual or privilege leave to the workers. In this respect, however, it appears that the mills in South India are somewhat more liberal and allow leave with pay for a period varying between 10 and 15 days, whereas those in older centres like Bombay and Ahmedabad have less saisfactory provision for granting such leave. In Nagpur in Empress Mills workers who have put in 20 years service are entitled to 12 days' leave with pay in a year. In the jute industry, since 1943, 7 holidays with pay are granted to all workers in a year. Workers are also allowed sick leave without pay and at the management's discretion, on the production of a medical certificate. In the woollen and silk textiles, generally no leave with pay is granted. In the engineering industry, holidays are permitted for festivals, etc., the number varying in different concerns from 2 to 18 days. Usually, however, these holidays are without pay for daily-rated and temporary workers and with pay for others. Permanent workers are eligible to privilege leave of two weeks and casual leave of one week, while sick leave without pay is granted at the discretion of the management. In other perennial factories, such as cement, matches, paper, glass, etc., festival holidays up to five days are generally given to all workers, and these are generally without pay for the daily-rated, piece-rated or temporary workers. Most of the concerns in the chemical industry in Bengal allow 11 to 24 holidays besides Sundays, with pay in most cases, to all workers except those in the "continuous processes" who get one day off after 14 days' work. In the cement industry, where Sundays are not holidays as such for continuous-process workers, shift workers get one day off in every 12 days in Bihar, and 32 hours' rest after 21 days' work in the Punjab. In seasonal factories, such as sugar, rice, cotton ginning and pressing factories etc., apart from Sundays, holidays are generally given on bazaar days in a few cases while very few festival holidays are allowed. Holidays are without pay for temporary workers and with pay to the monthly paid permanent staff. In unregulated factories, such as mica, shellac, bidi-making, tanneries, carpet weaving and coir matting, a weekly holiday is observed, though not always strictly. Most of the workers being piece-rated do not get any holidays with pay. In certain concerns only time-rated workers are allowed leave with pay, not as a matter of right, but as one of favour.

In the mining industry, workers get a weekly holiday and a few festival holidays which are without pay for the daily-rated and piece-rated workers and with pay for others. In gold mines, underground workers get 21 days' privilege leave while surface workers get 14 days, in both cases with pay. In the mineral oil industry, daily-rated workers are entitled to 14 days' leave with pay and 28 days' without pay, in

addition to three religious holidays with pay in Assam, while in the Punjab 15 days' leave with pay is granted to monthly-rated workers only and 6 religious holidays with pay to all. In the plantations, Sunday is a holiday (except generally in the flush season) and it is with pay only in the case of time-rated staff. Only in Assam; some gardens give two or three paid holidays in a year to all workers on festival occasions, while in Bengal such holidays are unpaid. In South India, there are no paid holidays as a rule, though a few estates give one paid holiday at Christmas. Tappers in rubber estates have no weekly holiday.

On the State Railways, inferior staff with three years or more of service are entitled to privilege leave of between 10 and 20 days, graduated according to length of service and the worker's category. Casual leave is not given to employees with less than six month's service. For those with more than ten years' servie, medical leave on half average pay is allowed up to 15 or 30 days. In deserving cases, disability leave on half pay, hospital leave on average or half-average pay and extra-ordinary leave without pay are also granted. Daily-rated and temporary staff are given ten days' leave with pay on completing three years' service and extraordinary leave without pay for a period not exceeding three months at a time. On some of the Railways, the menial staff are not allowed any leave as a matter of right, though there are leave rules for superior staff. In tramways, except in the traffic section, Sundays are holidays for workers. These workers are also given four off-days in a month but without wages. In Calcutta, skilled workers in the engineering and permanentway departments get 12 days with pay, while all holidays are without pay for unskilled workers. In Madras, only permanent workerrs are entitled to 21 days' privilege leave. In the bus companies, usually there is no holiday at all nor any provision for casual or sick leave. Only 2 to 4 days without pay are allowed every month to workers by turn. In the Port Trusts, Sundays are closed days and in addition festival holidays are given varying from 2 (in Cochin) to 15 days (in Calcutta). Permanent employees get privilege leave of 14 days in Bombay and 30 days in Karachi; 1|12th or 1|24th of service in Calcutta and 30 days in Cochin.

In the dockyards, Sunday is a holiday, and besides holidays from 2 to 12, with or without pay, are granted, only monthly-rated permanent workers being entitled to leave with pay. In the H.M.I. Dockyard, permanent workers get earned leave at the rate of 1|11th of the service, 20 days' casual leave, and also sick leave and extraordinary leave while temporary monthly-rated workers get earned leave at the rate of 1|22nd of the service and other leave mentioned above. Much less leave is given to temporary daily-rated employees.

In the municipalities, except for conservancy staff and sweepers Sundays are holidays with or without pay, while only certain sections, such as workshop workers, get festival holidays. The scale of leave varies from one municipality to another, but compared to other industries, it appears to be liberal. Bombay gives 15 days' casual leave and leave without pay for one month to all its employees, while permanent workers get one months leave with pay and injury leave for three months (one month on full pay and two months on half pay). In Madras they get 15 days's casual leave and 15 days' privilege leave only.

In most concerns, the principle of "No Work, No Pay" is observed. As the Indian worker is poor and has to bear the economic responsibility

of a large family, he generally prefers not to avail himself of any leave without pay except when pressed by necessity. Not only this, he even wants to work on holidays. The employers, especially in many small concerns, connive at this practice, as is clear from the fact that while the attendance registers show workers as absent on a weekly holiday, the wage registers record payment for all the seven days in a week! This is particularly so in seasonal and unregulated factories. A careful study of the provisions for holidays and leave in different industries reveals certain common features, such as absence of any legal agreement in most concerns, the grant of leave facilities entirely at the discretion of the management, and the non-payment of wages during holidays to daily-rated, piece-rated and temporary workers. Leave or holidays are granted not as a matter of right, but as one of favour. Consequently, there is much scope for discrimination and partial treatment, about which many of the trade union organisations have complained, stating that in this respect, as in others, active workers interested in trade unions are penalised. As regards the daily-rated, piece-rated and temporary staff, the grant of leave *without pay* means that an overwhelming majority of workers do not enjoy any holidays. Moreover, even where provision for leave and holidays exists, it is often complained that leave in fact is very rarely granted, while sick leave is granted only on the production of a medical certificate of the factory medical officer, who may not be always impartial. In some establishments, particularly railways, it is alleged that workers cannot always get leave without having to pay illegal gratification. It was reported in many cases that the factory medical officer does not necessarily base his recommendations on the needs of the individual but on the availability of the supply of labour to take the place of the applicants for sick leave. The result is that quite often silk workers are compelled to go on working for fear of losing their jobs.

V—*Disciplinary Measures.*

One of the main problems confronting the Indian worker, as has been stated more than once already, is security of employment, in the sense of both permanency and continuity of service. So far as disciplinary measures are concerned, the desideratum of security of service implies that no worker shall be subjected to any penalty curtailing prospective chances of employment except for a proved offence and in accordance with definite provisions laid down. It is far better that discipline should be assured by engendering a sense of mutual co-operation and helpfulness between the workers and the management; but even where this is lacking for any reason, the next best principle is to suit the degree of severity of disciplinary measures to the degree of offence committed by the worker and, as far as possible, to avoid the severest penalty of dismissal or suspension.

The usual disciplinary measures are (i) dismissal, (ii) suspension or forced leave, and (iii) imposition of fines. Apart from these, there may be other less recognised modes of punishment.

(i) *Dismissal* and *discharge* are the most extreme forms of punishment and are liable to be much abused, especially in industries where jobbery in one form or other exists and where supply of labour is easily forthcoming. There is no doubt that dismissal gives the jobber an opportunity to fleece the workers. Moreover, it has been stated by trade

unions that this form of punishment is most frequently used against workers interested in union activities. More often than not, however, what happens is that a weapon which is used with the avowed purpose of rooting out trade unionism actually causes more strikes and lockouts than are stritly necessary. A slight distinction is to be made between discharge and dismissal. Discharge can take the place of dismissal as a disciplinary measure, but it is less vindictive, as it may not make re-employment so difficult. Moreover, discharge also takes place very often for other reasons, such as completion of work, etc. On the other hand, dismissal is a more extreme form of punishment involving the possibility of a worker's record being used against him at the time of re-employment. The Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee[1] recommended the retention of these forms of punishment only in cases of grave misconduct. The problem of wrongful dismissal or discharge is a very complicated one. Under the labour laws, the employer is not prevented from dismissing a worker without due notice. All that is safeguarded (under the Payment of Wages Act, Section 5, sub-section (ii) is that "where the employment of any person is terminated ..... the wages earned by him shall be paid before the expiry of the second working day on which his employment is terminated." Under the circumstances, the worker is perhaps safeguarded by the ordinary Law of Contract only if there is any provision in the agreement between himself and the employer as to due notice before dismissal or payment of wages in lieu of notice. Unfortunately, except in the Bombay Province under the Industrial Disputes Act, whenever there are any agreements in this connection, it appears that the workers' rights are very much inferior to those of the employer, and whereas notice is demanded from the worker, no notice is necessary on the part of the employer. In the Central P.W.D. for example, work charged or temporary men can be dispensed without notice on the part of the Department, but if the worker wants to leave, he has to give one month's notice! This practice is also quite common amongst other employers. It appears that the legal decisions on the basis of ordinary civil law in cases of dismissal without notice, where no definite agreement had been arrived at, have been somewhat conflicting, and the general principle of law that notice of dismissal should be of the same duration as the period of wage payment has not been always upheld. In view of this, we feel that the question of notice of dismissal or payment of wages in lieu thereof should be placed beyond the possibility of doubt by specific legal regulation.

(ii) *Suspension.*—The practice of suspending workers for offences does not seem to be much in vogue in the industries investigated. Generally a warning is given, and if the offence is repeated and the worker does not mend his ways, he is simply discharged. Suspension or "forced leave" should be distinguished from "compulsory leave" which is not meant as a punishment, but as a device to make room for *badli* workers. Under the standing orders framed under the Bombay Industrial Disputes Act, the circumstances under which suspension should be resorted to are precisely laid down. This question, like most other questions of day-to day management of labour, appears to be a fit subject for standing orders. In this connection, we feel that suspension should not exceed a definite

[1] *Report*, p. 49.

period, e.g., 10 days and should not be regarded as constituting a break in the continuity of service.

(iii) *Fines.*—Under the Payment of Wages Act, Section 8, it has been laid down that fines shall not be imposed on any employed person for offences other than those specified by the Provincial Government or by the prescribed authority under the Act. It has also been laid down that no fine shall be imposed until the worker has been given an opportunity of showing cause against the fine and that the total amount of the fine imposed in any one wage period shall not exceed an amount equal to half an anna in the rupee of the wages payable to him in respect of that wage period. Further, there is a time limit of 60 days for recovery of the fine, and there is also the requirement that all fines shall be recorded in a register and the proceeds utilised for purposes beneficial to the persons employed in the factory. The provisions of the Payment of Wages Act in this regard appear to be adequate and satisfactory, and as a consequence it appears that imposition of fines has become less common in most concerns in recent years. There are no doubt a number of concerns where fining is still prevalent. The fines registers are not, however, always properly maintained and, what is still more objectionable, the amounts are not always utilised in the manner directed by the law. The concerns are supposed to spend these amounts "for the welfare of workers" and the administration in all cases is in the hands of the management. A number of cases, however, came to our notice, where no separate Fine Fund was maintained, nor the proceeds utilised for any welfare measures. In some cases, the amounts were credited to factory accounts! Moreover, even where some sort of welfare activity was undertaken, this was merely nominal. For example, in a large municipal corporation, where the avowed objects of the investment of the Fine Fund are maintenance of reading rooms and play-grounds, contributions to institutions established for the benefit of municipal employees and other measures of well-being, out of a total amount standing to the credit of the Fund of Rs. 5,55,702 on the 1st January, 1944, only Rs. 34,924 was spent on welfare, the establishment charges of welfare being Rs. 22,910!

(iv) *Other Measures*—Of course, apart from the above disciplinary measures, in some industries, reduction of wage rates and reduction of grade are also prevalent. The reduction of wage rates already agreed to under an existing contract is tantamount to an illegal deduction under the Payment of Wages Act according to a decision of the Sind Chief Court. However, as the worker does not resort to the law court for such things for fear of being dismissed unceremoniously, we are afraid that the legal decision is not effective everywhere. We fully agree with the Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee[1] that reduction of wage rates should be made specifically unlawful as it is quite possible for an unscrupulous employer to economise his wages bill by resort to this method. A reduction of grade may have the same effect as reduction of wage rates, so far as the worker is concerned, but, if the work newly allotted to the worker is less onerous or less skilful, there can be no corresponding gain to the employer. De-grading of this kind may, therefore, be less objectionable, but unless, like all other measures of discipline, it is controlled

[1] *Report*, p. 49.

by actual standing orders or by law, it is likely to be abused. In particular, it is worth consideration whether this measure should not be restricted to definite period so as not to penalise the worker permanently.

VI—*Certain Special Features of Recruitment, Promotions, etc.*

One of the measures adopted by many concerns with the object of building up a permanent labour force is to give preference for employment to the sons and relatives of existing employees. For this, workers are permitted to register the names of their sons or other near relatives who may desire employment. It has been stated by employers that such new recruits become more easily accustomed to factory discipline and more amenable to management. Very often apprentices are also recruited in this way. The Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee[1] rebuke employers for giving preference to relatives of workers and suggest that unless the preference was confined to only the nearest relatives of the employees, who have put in (say) not less than five years' service, there was risk that an industry might become a close preserve of those already employed in it. The problem is somewhat peculiar to Bihar, where large numbers of workers have been drawn, especially for skilled work, from other Provinces. The Bihar Committee, therefore, emphasize the need of giving to "the sons of the soil" the rightful share of employment in the Province. A somewhat similar problem arises in other Provinces and industries also. Thus, in the cotton textile industry, appointments for higher posts are very often made from amongst relatives of the employers or of the directors of jointstock concerns, and this system extends to certain other industries as well. In fact, allegations have been made to us that in certain concerns e.g., in the engineering industry, there is a considerable concentration of particular communities, and men are selected irrespective of merit if they belong to those communities. The evils of nepotism, communalism or racialism cannot be eradicated unless and until recruiting is done on scientific principles through impartial agencies, such as Employment Exchanges. In particular, such evils become highly obnoxious when industries are brought up at the expense of the general public by means of protection granted on the recommendation of Tariff Boards or when such industries rely upon the joint-stock principle. In such circumstances, it is undoubtedly the duty of the State to intervene and to see that these evils are checked and minimised.

In this connection, reference may be made to the problem of racial discrimination on the railways, to which attention was drawn by the Royal Commission in their Report[2]. After having drawn attention to the matter, however, the Royal Commission remarked that this was mainly a "political issue", but recommended that "in the interests of all concerned, definite steps be now taken which will lead in a specified term of years to the progressive elimination of any form of discrimination as regards both appointments and promotions to all grades and classes, thus providing simultaneously for an increasing number of appointments and promotions of members of other communities." In spite of the advice of the Royal Commission, however, it does not appear that the virus of racial discrimination, whether open or covert, has been mitigated. In

[1] *Report*, p. 34.

[2] *Report*, pp. 141-43.

several respects, the system still continues, as will be seen from the following facts. In the first place, the Government of India have reserved 8 per cent of the subordinate posts open for direct recruitment to domiciled Europeans and Anglo-Indians. This percentage is out of all proportion to the population percentage of those communities. Secondly, it has been brought to our notice that in respect of promotions, Europeans and Anglo-Indians, whether in subordinate or superior services and whether in private or State railways, are very often given preference, irrespective of merit or efficiency. Thirdly, Anglo-Indians and domiciled Europeans are started on a higher minimum pay in various grades where they have a special reservation for recruitment. For example, while an Indian ticket-collector starts on Rs. 30 per month, an Anglo-Indian ticket-collector starts on Rs. 55. Fourthly, several running-rooms are reserved exclusively for the use of Anglo-Indians and Europeans, while those for Indians are far inferior in every respect, e.g., crockery, furniture, service, etc. Fifthly, preferential treatment is given to Anglo-Indian and European children in the matter of educational facilities and disproportionately large amounts are spent by railways on them as compared with those spent on Indian children. Sixthly, in respect of recreational facilities, although the Service Agreement provides that all categories of staff should compulsorily subscribe to the funds of railway institutions and clubs for recreation, large amounts are spent on clubs and recreational facilities reserved for Europeans and Anglo-Indians, while the Indian workers are practically ignored. The list can be elongated further and we cannot resist the conclusion that the policy of racial discrimination adopted by some of these railways in the days when they were Company owned does not seem to have been affected by the fact of their conversion into State Railways. In fact some Company railways which were recently purchased by the State are still in the chrysalis stage, in which they have not shaken off their earlier customs and policies! This is a matter on which we feel rather strongly. We do not fully agree with the Royal Commission that this is a mere "political" issue, but, on the other hand, think that from the point of view of efficiency and elementary justice, it is an issue of great economic and moral importance to railway labour, if not to the country as a whole.

VII—*Machinery for looking into Grievances of Workers*

The Royal Commission on Labour recommended the employment of Labour Officers in industrial establishments with a view to eliminating the evils of recruitment through jobbers or contractors, and, what is more important, as a means of establishing healthy contact between employers and enquiring into the grievances of workers. "His position", they said, "should enable him to see that the workers' case is adequately presented, and he can act as their advocate when he is convinced that remedial measures are required.[1] The Commission further remarked: "He should be subordinate to no one except the general manager of the factory, and should be carefully selected. Special technical qualifications are not essential for the appointment, though a general knowledge of the processes is necessary. Integrity, personality, energy, the gift of understanding individuals and linguistic facility are the main qualities required".[2]

[1] *Report*, p. 343.

[2] *Report*, p. 25.

Since he Royal Commission made this recommendation, the institution of labour officer has come to stay. The cotton textile industry in Bombay, for example, has employed a large number of labour officers. In the Bombay City, 34 mills out of 47 have labour officers to enquire into grievances of workers. Likewise, in other textile centres there are labour officers in some large units. In the larger units in several other industries like cement, matches, chemicals, paper, jute etc., also there are labour officers. In seasonal factories and in unregulated factories, as also in plantations, however, they are non-existent. In such factories complaints and grievances are brought directly before the manager by the workers and the manager is supposed to enquire into them. In the mining industry, the labour officer is less in vogue and although there is a labour superintendent in the Assam Oil Company at Digboi and a labour welfare officer in the Kolar Gold Fields, there are no such men in the iron ore, salt, manganese, or mica mining. In the mines and in plantations generally speaking, the manager is supposed to look into the complaints of the workers. In actual practice, however, complaints are brought by workers to *mistries* and *sardars* and if they are satisfied about the *bona fides* of the complaints and if they think that they should be brought before the manager, then only are they finally dealt with by the manager. Sometimes, the manager asks an assistant or a member of the staff or the *mistry* himself to look into the matter. In the South Indian plantations, managers of several estates would not listen to any complaint of a worker unless it is brought to them by or through a *mistry*. As a result, when the complaints are against the *mistries* themselves, as is often the case, the workers get no chance either to voice their grievances or to get them redressed. In the Railways, complaints of workers and staff can be brought before the workshop committees or staff councils. On the E.I.R., there is an Employment Officer, assisted by labour advisers. There are also personnel officers in some railways. In the G.I.P. Railway, there is a Liaison Officer to enquire into grievances. And on the Railways managed by Mcleod and Company, there is an officer to look after the welfare of the staff. A few factories, chiefly engineering concerns and dockyards, have works committees which regularly meet and deal with the workers' grievances.

Apart from the labour officers in industrial establishments, most Provincial Governments have Labour Officers, under the Commissionners of Labour, to whom the workers can represent their grievances. Likewise, the Government of India has appointed, under their Chief Labour Commissioner, a number of Regional Labour Commissioners and Conciliation Officers, who have been entrusted with duties of conciliation in various areas. The Government have also appointed Labour Welfare Advisers in all Ordnance Factories.

The All-India Trade Union Congress and several other workers' organisations urge that labour officers and works committees should not be allowed to encroach on the functions of trade unions or encouraged to interfere with trade union activities and that trade unions' powers and rights to represent workers' grievances to employers or their associations should be kept intact. There is some substance in this view because very often there is a tendency amongst employers to use labour officers as a counterblast to the activities of trade unions. Enlightened employers,

however, have widened the functions of their labour officers by encouraging them to undertake welfare activities with a view to the amelioration of the workers' conditions and peaceful internal settlement of disputes. Probably, the surest safeguard against industrial unrest is the encouragement of well-organised trade unionism. Some employers have recognised trade unions, whether registered under law or not, but several employers still refuse to deal with trade unions in matters pertaining to the workers. In the Mysore State, Mysore Labour Act, 1942, has made it obligatory on all employers employing 100 or more workers to recognise a properly registered trade union of their workers.

The employment of labour officers to look into grievances of workers is engaging the attention of several industrial concerns, and year by year, more and more labour officers are being employed. The Indian Engineering Association has complained that considerable difficulties are felt in obtaining the services of the right type of men for this work. This undoubtedly necessitates the training of capable men for the work of labour officers. In this connection, it is interesting to note that the Millowners' Association, Bombay, have a labour officers' training class, in which six months' training is given to candidates. Likewise, the Calcutta University has recently started a course of training for labour officers, while the Sir Ratan Dorabji Tata School of Social Science, Bombay, trains social workers in labour problems.

CHAPTER VI.

WORKING CONDITIONS.

We now propose to discuss under different headings working hours and conditions, shifts, rest-days and other essential facilities which are statutorily laid down for the health and safety of workers. There is therefore no reference in this chapter to welfare activities which are undertaken for the betterment of the condition of workers over and above what is laid down by law.

1—HOURS OF WORK.

In this Section, we shall deal with the position as regards hours of work in different industries, including factory industries, mines, plantations, transport and other industries and trades.

(a) *Hours of work in Factories.*

Pursuant to the recommendations of the Royal Commission, the Factories Act of 1934 has laid down a maximum of ten hours of work in the case of an adult in a perennial factory and 11 hours of work in the case of a male adult in a seasonal factory, with a spreadover of 13 hours per day, no adult worker being allowed to work for more than 54 hours or, where the factory is a seasonal one, for more than 60 hours, in any one week. No woman is allowewd to work in a factory except between 6 a.m. and 7 p.m. No child (i.e., a person who has completed his twelfth year but not completed his fifteenth year) and no adolescent (i.e., a person who has completed his fifteenth year but not completed his seventeenth year) are permitted by the Act to work in a factory for more than 5 hours in any day, the spreadover being 7½ between 6 a.m. and 7 p.m. An adolescent, who has been granted a certificate of fitness to work as an adult, is treated as an adult for purposes of working hours. The hours of work, spreadover, shifts and restdays in the sampled units in different factory industries are shown in Table 44.

TABLE 44.

Hours of Work, Spreadover, Shifts and Rest Days in Factory Industries.

Sl. No.	Name of industry.	Hours of work per day.	Hours of work per week.	Spreadover.	Is there a weekly or fortnightly holiday?	Remarks.
1	Cotton ...	7½-10	45-60	8-13	Weekly ...	Overlapping shifts worked in some units in Cawnpore, Madura, Coimbatore and Cochin. Exemptions in respect of hours have been granted in many provinces.
2	Jute ...	9-12	60-72	13-14	Weekly ...	During war time, Bengal mills with more than 220 looms were permitted to work 66 hours a week; and those with less than 220 looms were permitted to work 72 hours a week. Many of the mills, however, work for 60 hours in some departments and 66 in others.
3	Silk ...	7½-9	54 or less	8½-10	Weekly ...	In many cases the hours were less than the statutory limit of 54.
4	Woollen ...	9-10 (In one unit in Bangalore, 3 shifts of 8 hours each are worked in the continuous process departments).	54	10-11	Weekly.	

5	**Engineering (including railway workshops).**	7½ to 12 hours for shift workers (in some cases night shift workers work for 7 hours).	42 to 72	8-12	Some workers get an off-day after 14 days' work. No separate holidays are given to workmen detained for urgent work on Sundays.	Special exemptions were granted during war time to factories engaged on war work for exceeding the factory hours laid down, subject to a maximum of 12 hours a day and 72 hours a week. Overlapping shifts worked in some units.
6	**Matches**	8½-10	54-60	9-11	Weekly ...	Some of the factories work 60 hours a week having obtained special exemptions from the porvisions of the Factories Act. Overlapping shifts worked in some units.
7	**Potteries**	8 for shifts workers 9 for general workers.	54	Never exceeds 10 hours.	Fortnightly holiday for shift workers and weekly holiday for general shift workers.	
8	**Printing Presses**	7½-8½	45-52	Maximum 12 hours.	Weekly ...	Overlapping shifts worked in some presses.
9	**Glass**	7½-9 hours for shift workers ; 10 for general workers	60	8-10½ hours for shift-workers. 11 hours for general workers.	A holiday usually after 14 days' work.	In Cottage shops at Firozabad, workers work on an average for 10-11 hours a day. Section 35 of the Factories Act in regard to weekly holidays in glass factories has been made inoperative in some provinces.
10	**Chemical and Pharmaceutical Works.**	7-10	49-56 for continuous shifts workers ; 54 for others.	8 for continuous process workers and 10-12 for general shift workers.	Continuous process workers get one day off after every 10-14 days. Weekly holidays for others.	Exemptions from some of the provisions of the Factories Act given to serveral factories as a war-time measure. Overlapping shifts worked by one unit only.

TABLE 44—*continued.*

Hours of Work, Spreadover, Shifts and Rest Days in Factory Industries—

Sl. No.	Name of industry.	Hours of work per day.	Hours of work per week.	Spreadover.	Is there a weekly or fortnightly holiday?	Remarks.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
11	Sugar ...	8 for manufacturing section ;		8 hours	Engineering Section get a weekly day of rest.	
		8-9 for Engineering Section.		9-10 hours.	The shifts are so arranged that each worker gets continuous rest for 32 hours after every 12th or 13th day in the manufacturing section.	
12	Cotton Ginning and Baling.	9-10	54-60	10-13 hours.	Weekly.	In C.P. & Berar and Khandesh factories, workers work for 9 hours with an hour's recess.
13	Rice Mills ...	7-10	42-60 The Act is not observed in the right spirit by several employers.	8-12	Weekly ...	Overlapping shifts worked in some mills in Madras and C.P. Employment of women is not uncommon in Bengal, C.P. and Bombay in night shifts.
14	Cement ...	7½-8 for shift workers	48-54	8	One day in the week is a closed day for general shift workers.	
		8-9 for general workers.		10½	Continuous process workers get a spell of rest for 32 hours after 10-14 days' work in the case of some and after 3 weeks in the case of others.	

15	Paper	...	7 to 8 in continuous process shifts.		8	General shift workers get one day in the week.	
			9 to 10 general shift.		$11\frac{1}{2}$	Continuous shift workers get 32 hours' rest after 8 to 12 days' work.	
16	Mica Factories	...	9	54	10	Weekly.	
17	Shellac manufacture		8-10	48-54 for regulated factories and 70 hours in unregulated factories.	8-12 hours. Morning till evening	Regulated Factories one day in a week. Unregulated concerns work all the days in the week.	
18	Bidi, Cigar and Cigarettes		11 to 12 for Bidi & Cigar.			No holiday in C.P. & Bengal. A weekly holiday in South India.	There are no fixed hours of work in Bidi and Cigar industries. Payment being on piece rates, the workers come and go as they please. In Spencer's Cigar factory at Dindigul, hours are limited to 9 for adults and 5 for children. Overlapping shifts prevail in Cigarette Factories in Bengal.
			to 9 for Cigarette.		13	Weekly holiday.	
19	Carpet Weaving	...	9-10		Morning till evening	Weekly ...	The hours are not regulated and usually work is carried on from sunrise to sunset.

TABLE 44—*continued.*

Hours of Work, Spreadover, Shifts and Rest Days in Factory Industries—

Sl. No.	Name of industry.	Hours of work per day.	Hours of work per week.	Spreadover.	Is there a weekly or fortnightly holiday ?	Remarks.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
20	Tanneries and leather goods manufacture.	*U.P.* 9—day shift 8-9 night shift	54 48-54	10-day shift 8½-10 night shift	Weekly (in larger units, smaller units evade the provisions of the Factories Act in this respect).	Overlapping shifts worked in one unit in Calcutta.
		Madras 8½ hours	52		Unregulated units work as they please in all provinces.	There s no regulation of hours except in two units in Madras.
		Bengal Below 9	Below 54 *Note.*—These weekly limits are observed in larger units only.			
21.	Coir matting ...	9 for men 8 for women 5 for children	54 for men 48 for women 30 for children	10-10½ 9-10 6½-7	Weekly ...	Children were often found working beyond the scheduled hours.

Hours of work in most of the factories are from 8 to 9 per day. In several factories where three shifts are worked, the working hours are 7½ per day (excluding ½ hour of rest-interval). In some unregulated factories like shellac and carpet, working hours sometimes extend to 12 per day. During war time, some factories such as jute mills, engineering workshops, chemicals, matches, etc., which were on war work, obtained exemptions from the provisions of the Factories Act in respect of hours and rest days and worked from 10 to 12 hours every day. Ordinarily, the weekly hours are from 48 to 54. Those factories which have obtained exemptions regarding hours of work and some of the unregulated factories work 56, 60 or even 72 hours per week. As regards spreadover, the practice varies from place to place and industry to industry in accordance with the shifts and recess arrangements of the different factories. *Normally*, the spreadover is within the provisions of the factories Act and does not exceed 13 hours. In several factories, the general day shift starts between 7-30 and 8-30 in the morning and ends between 5-30 and 6-30 in the evening with usually one hour's interval for rest in the afternoon. This means that the total spreadover normally ranges between 9 and 11 hours. In factories working multiple shifts the general practice is 3 shifts, each of 7½ or 8 hours' duration and, in this case, the spreadover is 8 hours, including a rest interval of ½ hour in some cases. In jute mills, the spreadover is 13 to 14 hours. In many factories of a seasonal nature like cotton ginning and baling, and some of the unregulated factories like carpet, *bidi* and cigar, the spreadover is 12 to 13 hours. Most of the factories give a weekly day of rest. Workers on continuous processes get a fortnightly holiday or their shifts are so arranged that they get a continuous period of 32 hours' rest after every 10 to 14 days' work. The supervisory staff in some concerns is theoretically on duty for all the seven days of the week. It is strange that shift workers in seasonal factories who work off and on practically throughout the year should not be subject to the same regulation of hours of work as is applicable to workers in perennial factories. As it is, they are usually at par with seasonal workers in respect of days of rest. This is certainly an anomalous position and we feel it should be rectified as soon as possible.

(b) *Hours of Work in Mines.*

Under the mines Act of 1923, as modified up to the 1st October 1938, a person employed below ground in a mine shall not be allowed to work for more than nine hours per day (the spread-over also being the same) or in the case of a worker employed above ground for more than ten hours a day (the spread-over being 12), the weekly maximum being 54 in both cases. No child is permitted to be employed in a mine and no young person who has not completed his seventeenth year is allowed to work below ground unless he carries a certificate of fitness. The following table gives in a summary form the position in respect of working hours, spreadover and weekly holidays in certain mining industries investigated by the committee:—

TABLE 45.

Hours of work, spreadover and weekly holiday in Mines.

Sl. No.	Name of Mineral	Hours of work per day.	Hours of work per week.	Spreadover.	Is there a weekly or a fortnigthly holiday	Remarks.
1	*Manganese* ...	8 to 9 for surface workers.	48-54 in C.P. 48 in Bombay. 63 in Sandur.	8-12	Weekly ...	In Sandur State there is no regulation of work for contract labour which works for 12 or more hours. There is also no weekly holiday for any worker in Sandur.
		8 for underground workers except in one mine (where they are 9)		8		
2	*Salt* ...	9 for underground workers and surface workers	54	9-10½	Weekly.	
3	*Mica* ...	8 per day for underground workers and 9-10 for surface workers.	48 54-60	8 hours for underground workers. 10-11 for surface workers.	Weekly.	
4	*Gold* ...	8 for surface as well as underground workers. 9 for workshops, Building and Sanitary Departments.			Weekly for all workers except those on essential services and workshops.	
5	*Mineral Oil*					
	General Workers ...	8 on week days in Assam (8½ in Punjab) and 52 on Saturdays.	45½ in Assam 48 in Punjab	92-10	Weekly.	
	Shift workers in Refinery.	8	48	8	Weekly except in continuous processes. In such process after every 14 days of work in assam, but not in Punjab.	

	Shift workers in Oilfields.	8	56	8	No regular rest day, but 10 days' leave allowed in Assam but not in Punjab.	
6. *Iron Ore*	... 8 for shift workers		48	9	Weekly ...	The working hours for contract labour may be as high as 12 per day in Bihar.
	8 for general worker		48	9½	Weekly ...	

The actual hours of work in mines in general are 8 for underground workers and 9 to 10 for surface workers. In the Salt Mines of the Punjab the working hours for both surface and underground workers are 9 per day and 54 in the week. The spreadover in the case of underground workers is the same as the actual hours of work; while in the case of others it ranges between 9 to 11 hours depending upon the duration of the recess interval. Mines are closed on bazaar day and attendance is very low on the following day.

In the mineral oil industry in Assam, the general workers have to work for 8 hours on week days and 5½ on Saturdays (total 45½), while the hours of work for the shift workers are 7½ per day. The weekly working hours for shift workers in the refinery are 48 whereas for those in the oil-field are 56. The spreadover for shift workers is 8 hours and for general workers it is 9½ to 10 hours. The Attock Oil Company has fixed 8 hours per day and 48 hours per week for shift workers while the general shift workers work 8½ hours per day and 48 hours per week both in the refinery and in the oilfields. All shift workers including those continuous processes in the refinery and oilfields get a rest-period of half an hour after 4½ hours' work, but no rest period is allowed at all to shift workers in the oilfields in the Punjab.

It is important to note that contract labour in mines is not governed by any statutory regulations regarding hours of work or holidays. Usually, their working hours are 12 in a day, i.e., from morning till evening, and they enjoy no weekly holidays at all.

(c) *Hours of work on Plantations.*

In plantations there is no statutory regulation regarding hours of work except in the case of tea and rubber factories. Men, women and children work practically the same number of hours though children are allotted light work and they do it rather leisurely.

On the Assam and Bengal tea gardens, work being on the *hazira* basis, there is no rigid rule regarding the hours of work. Usually one *hazira* is finished in 5 to 6 hours. After finishing his *hazira*, a worker is free to take up extra work which is called *ticca* or *dhoubli*. In the plucking season, the pluckers work up to 10 or 11 hours per day with a view to earning more wages. Sunday is usually a rest day on all gardens. In the Kangra Valley, hours of work are 8 to 9 per day, in Dehra Dun 8, and in Almora 6. The spreadover is 9 to 10 hours in Kangra and 9 hours in Dehra Dun during winter and 11 to 11½ hours during summer. One day in the week is generally allowed for rest. In South India, on tea and coffee estates, the daily hours are 8 to 9 and the spreadover 10 to 11 hours. Most of the workers are given a set task and are free to go away when it is finished. Usually it can be finished only in 8 to 9 hours although some skilful workers finish it in 5 to 6 hours. Work generally starts at 7-30 or 8 in the morning and finishes by 5-30 or 6 in the evening. But the workers are required to attend a morning and evening muster which takes about half an hour and an evening is not included in the working hours. The pluckers need not attend the evening muster but have to carry the plucked leaf to the factory for weighment which takes an hour or so. Again, although there is provision for a mid-day interval of one hour, it was almost a universal complaint by the workers that they were not allowed to avail themselves of the interval. On many estates

no worker other than a nursing mother is allowed to go to his or her quarters during the so called mid-day break. The workers are, however, allowed 5 to 10 minutes' time for a hasty meal at the place of work if they have brought any food with them. Instances are many where the workers' wages have been forfeited for having left the field and gone to their quarters during the so-called mid-day recess. There is also reason to believe that the workers are made to work much later than 5-30 or 6 p.m. In fact, on some estates workers were seen at work even at 7 p.m. On rubber estates, tappers start work at about 6 a.m. and work till 1 or 2 p.m. A weekly holiday is allowed on tea and coffee estates, except in times of heavy flush, but not on rubber estates. The tea factories, as well as the larger rubber factories, come under the Factories Act, but only as seasonal factories, though almost all of them work for more than 180 days and most of them work nearly all the year round.

(d) *Hours of work in Transport services.*

This will be treated under the following two sub-headings:—

(i) Railways,

(ii) Other forms of Transport.

(i) *Railways.*

The Hours of Employment Regulations, 1931, are applicable to all categories of railway staff on Class I Railways in British India with the exception of (a) the running staff, (b) chowkidars, watermen, sweepers, gatekeepers, etc., (c) persons who hold positions of supervision or management or who are employed in a confidential capacity, and (d) persons employed in a factory within the meaning of the Indian Factories Act. The exclusion of staff in the first three categories does not absolve the Supervisor of Railway Labour (now Chief Labour Commissioner (Central) from watching their conditions of work. The fourth category of employees is covered by the Factories Act.

The main provisions of the Hours of Employment Regulations are as follows:—

(1) "A railway servant, other than a railway servant whose employment is essentially intermittent, shall not be employed for more than sixty hours a week on the average in any month". (Section 71 C,(1)).

(2) "A railway servant whose employment is essentially intermittent shall not be employed for more than 84 hours in any week". (Section 71 C (2)).

(3) "Temporary exemptions of railway servants from the provisions of the above sub-sections (1) and (2) may be made in case of exceptional pressure of work, accidents or when urgent work is required to be done to the railway or rolling stock, provided that overtime is paid at not less than one and a quarter times the ordinary rate of pay".

(4) "A Railway servant whose duties are not essentially intermittent shall be given a rest of not less than 24 consecutive hours each week commencing on Sunday, though the Governor-General-in-Council may, by rules made under Section 71E,

specify the classes of railway servants who may be granted rest on a scale lower than 24 consecutive hours or grant temporary exemptions in case of accidents, exceptional pressure of work, etc., as specified in sub-section (3) of Section 71 C, provided that compensatory periods of rest are granted for the periods of rest foregone".

(5) "A Railway servant exempted under the provisions of sub-section (3) of Section 71 D from the grant of rest shall not be required to work for 21 days without a rest of at least 24 consecutive hours (Rule 7 under Section 71 D)".

In accordance with the provisions of the Railway Act, the Government of India had appointed a Supervisor of Railway Labour, a Deputy Supervisor and several Inspectors for the purpose of enforcing these regulations on all State-managed railways. This work is now entrusted to the Chief Labour Commissioner (Central) and his deputies.

Classification of Staff.—The crux of the Regulations is the classification of workers as "continuous" and "essentially intermittent", since hours of work and periods of rest differ according to the different categories. As the power of declaring a worker as continuous and intermittent is given to the Railway Administration, there is naturally a conflict of opinion between the workers and the managements. The Supervisor of Railway Labour and his staff have devoted considerable attention to this question. They bring cases of doubtful or wrong classification to the notice of the Railway Administrations. Cases which are open to doubt are reviewed by Administrations whereas those which obviously involve a breach of the law, are rectified by them.

Temporary Exemptions.—Sub-Rule (i) of Rule 5 empowers the Head of a Railway to make temporary exemptions of railway servants from the limits of hours of work prescribed in Section 71C, and Sub-Rule 2 provides further that the Head of the Railway can delegate this power to subordinate authorities. It is reported that this delegation of power has resulted in several objectionable practices. Records of exemptions are not maintained by subordinates in spite of instructions from the railway administrations. The result is that claims to payments of overtime are bound to fail when they are not supported by relevant records. In August 1942, the Governor-General promulgated the Railways (Hours of Employmnt) Ordinance "empowering the Central Government to issue notification to suspend the operation of Chapter VI A of the Indian Railways Act, 1890, and of the Rules made thereunder on any specified railway or section of a railway. The ordinance also made it incumbent on Railway Administrations to pay to the Railway Employees overtime for extra hours worked during such suspensions at not less than 1½ times their ordinary rate of pay". In 1943-44, this temporary abrogation of the Hours of Employment Regulations was not resorted to on any Railway.

Periods of Rest.—The Regulations do not prescribe the point of time from which compulsory rest should begin or when it should end, but Railway workers are keen that the period of rest should coincide with a calendar day. Such a preference is understandable when, in terms of hours, a calendar day's rest in practice means more than 24 conse-

cutive hours' actual rest. It is seen, however, from the annual reports of the Supervisor of Railway Labour that there has been an increase in the percentage of staff entitled to 24 consecutive hours' rest in place of a calendar day's rest on some railways which, to say the least, is not a very healthy trend. A calendar day's rest in place of the statutory minimum rest is always welcomed by the employees and attempts should be made to see that their wishes are met with, as far as possible and practicable. Though the rosters provide for rest periods, it is reported that "several cases were brought to notice in which Railway Servants were found working during their periods of weekly rest".[1] Moreover, working outside rostered hours is also a common violation, particularly by the Goods Staff on all Railways. This evil is partly or wholly due to the fact that it is not possible for the goods clerks to complete their work within the rostered hours. In any case, a determined effort is necessary to end this practice.

Continual Night Duty.—There is no provision either in the Act or the Rules prohibiting continual employment at night, though Subsidiary Instruction No. 8 issued by the Railway Board contains a directive to the Railway administrations to avoid such employment as far as possible. It is no doubt true that continual night duty cannot always be eliminated especially in the case of certain employees whose presence is required during night; e.g., chowkidars, watchmen, lampmen, and, at certain stations, Assistant Station Masters. Some relief has no doubt been afforded to such workers by transferring them to stations where continual night duty does not obtain. Some of the general conclusions in respect of hours of work in railways may be given below:—

(1) There is a need for the extension of the benefit of the Hours of Employment Regulations to all railways, both in British India and Indian States.

(2) There should be a certain amount of uniformity in respect of classification of workers as intermittent and continuous. The All-India Railwaymen's Federation urged as early as 1930 that this function (of classifying the workers) should be entrusted to a Joint Body of Representatives of Employers' and Workers' Organisations according to the spirit of Clause A of Article 6 of Washington Hours' Convention, vesting the power of veto, if necessary, in a competent authority.

(3) Although it is more than a decade since the Hours of Employment Regulations were introduced, they do not yet cover the running staff. Surely, they need as much protection as any other class of workers.

(4) In the absence of penal provisions such as those in the Factories Act, it is doubtful whether infringements of the provisions of the Hours of Employment Regulations (in respect of working beyond rostered hours, etc.) could be effectively prevented on the Railways.

(5) It is now rightly demanded by workers that there should be a re-classification of workers, as, owing to the increase in the volume of work, workers who were classified formerly as intermittent are now doing continuous work. Moreover, labour feels that the hours of work should be reduced from 84 to 60

[1]Annual Report on the Working of the Hours of Employment Regulations, 1940-41, p. 10.

in the case of intermittent workers and from 60 to 48 hours per week in the case of continuous workers. Whether the Railways could bear the necessary additional financial burden or not, the claim for further reduction in working hours and an increase in periods of rest calls for a close scrutiny.

(6) It is alleged by unions that several workers are shown as 'intermittent' although they should be classified as 'continuous', and that the railways gain as a consequence. It is also alleged that the mistake is rectified only when cases are brought to their notice. If these allegations are true, we feel that the railway authorities should fully regularise the position instead of dealing with stray cases of complaint.

(ii) *Others forms of Transport Labour.*

Tram and Bus workers work for 8 to 8½ hours a day and the weekly maximum is 48 hours. The spreadover is about 12½ hours. The workshop staff are given a weekly holiday on Sunday. Commercial and transportation staff are given 2 to 4 days off every month or wages in lieu thereof. The daily hours of work for *port workers* are 7½ to 8½ with a spreadover of 8 to 9½ hours. Weekly working hours are 43 to 48. In Departments, where work is of an intermittent character, 8 to 12 hours per day is the rule. One weekly holiday is allowed.

(e) *Hours of work for other types of labour.*

Enquiries were made in relation to three miscellaneous types of labourers, including Municipal labourer, C.P.W.D. workers, and rickshaw pullers. Their position regarding working hours is summarised below:—

(1) The daily and weekly hours of work for *municipal labour* are 8 to 10½ and 48 to 60 respectively. The daily spreadover is 10 to 11½ hours. They are given a weekly holiday. In some places, scavengers get halfday off per week. Employees of the Fire Brigade are on call for all the 24 hours.

(2) Central P.W.D. workers work 8 hours a day and 48 hours a week, with Sunday as the weekly holiday. Work-chargedmen get all Sundays in a month as holidays (or some other day in the week in lieu of Sunday) and in addition a certain number of common Governments holidays and communal holidays. Contract labour works for almost 11 hours in Karachi although the scheduled hours are 8 with a sreadover of 9 hours. The A.R.P. Personnel in Bengal worked two shifts of 12 hours each during the War.

(3) The hours of work of Rickshaw pullers are not regulated. They are liable to work all the 24 hours (e.g. in Simla) although only intermittently. In Madras the pullers are actually out for work for only 8 to 10 hours. In Calcutta, there are two shifts—day shift and night-shift.

(f) *Hours of Work and Efficiency.*

There is a medley of conflicting opinions in regard to the effects of the statutory restriction of working hours on the efficiency of workers. Some employers say that reduction of working hours has adversely affected production and any further reduction will have still worse

effects. Others maintain that the effects of restriction of hours as enforced by the Factories Act have been to increase the efficiency of workers which has largely maintained production at its normal level. But they are not in favour of any further reduction. As for the desirability and probable effects of a further reduction of working hours, most of the employers and Government and semi-Governmental organisations are of opinion that it will certainly reduce production. The Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association neatly summarises the conflicting view points in these words: "No definite statement can be made regarding the effect of a further reduction of hours of work on production. In mills where workers have already attained a very high level of efficiency and there is no slackness of work at present, it would not be possible to maintain the present production, unless the machinery is speeded up with this definite purpose. This may not however be feasible as the tendency is generally to run the machines at a maximum speed. If suitable alterations are made in some processes leading to higher efficiency methods, it would be possible to maintain the production in spite of reduction in hours. Mills which are at present below the average efficiency mark will have enough scope to make up for the loss, if they remove the causes which are responsible for their lower production". Curtailment in working hours can be profitably effected only up to the point beyond which returns begin to suffer and we are not sure if that point is yet reached in India. The employers point out that the loitering habits of workers still continue, but these may themselves be partly attributed to long hours, apart from absence of rest-pause and lack of discipline. There is thus an appreciable difference between the nominal hours and actual working hours, thereby showing that the hours of work have not been sufficiently reduced. Apparently, if greater discipline is enforced, there is no reason why a further restriction of hours should not maintain the present level of production in a large number of industrial units. It may be noted in passing that a fair number of industries already work an eight-hour shift. But for the war, this number might have increased still further and we are consequently inclined to think that workers would gain and that industry would not suffer, if the working hours are reduced. We are glad to note in this connection that the Government of India have taken the initiative and introduced legislation reducing the hours of work to 48 per week in all concerns subject to the Factories Act.

This brings us to the question of rest-intervals and spreadover. The usual practice in India is an interval of one hour, or, in some cases, ½ hour. The wide adoption of the "one—break" day has thus been followed by the division of the working day into two work spells of approximately equal length separated by a rest or meal interval of 1 or ½ hour. Where a double or multiple shift system is in force, the fixation of the rest interval is usually arbitrary and takes no accounts of the need of workers. We are not aware of any large-scale experiments made by employers with short rest-pauses (say of 10 to 15 minutes), apart from rest intervals. Their introduction has had an unconscious effect on production and efficiency in England. This was usually reflected in an increase of the total output, although this, it must be confessed, cannot always be expected. In purely automatic processes (which, by the way, are not numerous in this country), production depends on the machine and introduction of short rest-pauses may result in a corresponding de-

crease in production. However, in processes where the worker plays a more important role, short rest-pauses are conducive to greater production. In both cases, however, the workers gain in efficiency and health and we feel that industrialists in this country should, wherever practicable, make experiments in this direction.

II—General Working Conditions.

In regard to working conditions, most of the employers rarely do more than what they are forced to do by law, and even this is evaded in several cases, while no extra measures to prevent the occurrence of accidents or secure better safety for the worker against dust, heat, etc., are usually adopted. The conditions under which the workers perform their tasks have a great bearing on their general health and efficiency. These can be considered under (a) Ventilation, (b) Temperature (c) Lighting.

(a) Ventilation may be natural in which case it is effected by windows, ventilators, etc. It may also be artificial, comprising methods of extraction of air by fans or propulsion of air into buildings by mechanical appliances. It is urgently needed especially in textile mills where work may be often carried on in dusty and or moist air. A fair number of industrial processes may be injurious or otherwise in proportion to the amount and nature of the dust that they produce. Similarly, an atmosphere kept moist by steam or spray, as in a cotton mill, may have a deleterious effect on the health of workers. There are several other trades which cause dust or injurious fumes. The evil effects of deficient ventilation are well-known and yet unfortunately no special analysis of the air in various factory industries is available.

(b) Provision for reasonable temperature in work-rooms is essential. Only a few of the employers in India have devoted attention to this subject. Air-conditioning plants have been installed in a fair number of cotton mills in Bombay and Ahmedabad. According to the Chief Inspector of Factories for the Bombay Province,[1] "the inside temperature recorded on the hottest day of the year in one of the best sheds in Ahmedabad was 88° with an external temperature of 112° in the shade". In this respect, Bombay lags behind Ahmedabad. The condition in other industrial centres is worse. If employers were to devote their attention to the installation of *khas tatties* or air-conditioning plants in their own interests in summer, conditions would no doubt improve.

(c) Adequate and suitable lighting in places of work protects the eye-sight of the employees and increases their output. Natural lighting may be derived from the roof or from side windows. Artificial lighting may be had through electricity, kerosene or petromax lamps. Unsatisfactory natural lighting is due to old and unsuitable buildings, nearness of other buildings, dirty window panes, walls and ceilings and these drawbacks are very conspicuous in many factories in India. The continuous use of artificial lighting is in itself unnatural and strains the eyes. Unsatisfactory illumination increases liability to accidents and results in dimimution of the output. It is also responsible for insanitary conditions as dirt accumulates unnoticed in the absence of adequate light. The employers must see that lighting is not only sufficient but that it avoids the casting of extraneous shadows on the actual place of work. In

[1] *Report of the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee*, p. 316.

many cases we noticed that lamps were not properly shaded with the result that light fell directly on the eyes of operatives while at work. The condition of compositors in a large number of printing presses was pitiable in this respect. It appears that Inspectors of Factories seldom give their thought to such things in the course of their inspections. We, therefore, suggest that there should be a statutory provision for the installation of adequate and suitable lighting in every part of a factory. We are also of opinion that it is necessary to certify premises, large and small, before they are occupied by any factory. This provision is no doubt in force in several places but our experience shows that it is not fully carried out, even in important urban areas.

Working conditions in bigger units, are, on the whole, satisfactory. Smaller and unregulated units, especially those housed in old buildings, present unsatisfactory conditions as to light, ventilation, etc., and leave much room for substantial improvement. Unfortunately, most of the employers are indifferent and merely content themselves by satisfying the letter of the law, rather than the spirit underlying it. The result is that, even within the limits laid down by law, the actual provisions made in regard to protection of machinery, etc., are, in several cases, disregarded. There are, of course, certain enlightened employers who have not stopped at merely providing guards for the exposed moving parts of machinery, but have gone further and organised safety-first committees among workers with a view to educate them in the risks of accidents. In some cases, bonuses are paid if no accidents occur within the jurisdiction of particular sets of workers.

An account of some of the prominent drawbacks noticed by the Committee and their Investigating staff is given in a summary form below. A general strengthening of the machinery of inspection, more frequent inspections and more stringent enforcement of the existing provision and their application to unregulated concerns should go a long way in bettering the conditions, reducing the number of accidents, and maintaining the efficiency of workers.

Textile Mills.—On the whole, particularly in newer units, the factory buildings are well lighted and ventilated and the general layout of the machinery is satisfactory and gives workers sufficient space to move about freely. In the older cotton textile mills, e.g., in Ahmedabad, Coimbatore, Nagpur and Akola, Delhi, Lahore, Indore and Baroda, and older jute mills in Calcutta, arrangements for lighting and ventilation are not satisfactory and there is a considerable congestion in several cases. Machinery is also not well laid out with the result that the workers have no adequate moving space. A fair number of cotton mills in Bombay and Ahmedabad and a few in Sholapur, Delhi and Madura have provided air-conditioning in their departments. Some mills in Bombay and Ahmedabad have also installed vacuum stripping plants for removing cotton dust. Where this is not done, the conditions are intolerable. In some places, on account of climate, the weaving sheds are humidified though the arrangtments in force are not everywhere satisfactory. Electric fans are also provided in several departments of mills in Bombay and Madras. So far as jute mills are concerned, no exhaust fans and dust extractors or even cooling plants have been installed in most of them. In old established industries like cotton and jute, one would expect very much more than the minimum requirements laid down by

law in respect of health and comfort. On the other hand, it is unusual for factory managements to provide even seating arrangements to the operatives during working hours. It would help to reduce fatigue considerably if high stools are provided, especially for women workers. Working conditions inside most of the silk and woollen mills are generally satisfactory, Srinagar being the important exception. The Factories Act does not apply to either the Silk or Woollen Factory at Srinagar.

Engineering.—Ventilation and lighting are in most cases adequate and satisfactory. In several general engineering workshops, however, war-time increase in demand for labour did not lead to increase in their size, as a result partly of restrictions on construction work. Certain sections, such as foundry, carpenters' workshop, smithy and hot-mill were found to be very dark and congested in several cases. A great deal of work on wood and metal is done in the open in many concerns which is very undesirable, as this exposes the workers to sun's rays throughout their work.

Potteries.—In Calcutta and Gwalior, provisions for lighting and ventilation leave much to be desired. In the clay-washing and grinding sections in Gwalior, there are neither windows nor ventilators on the sides of the walls. There is also much congestion in these and the filtering section. Provisions for lighting and ventilation are more satisfactory in Bangalore. Workers in the grinding and mixing sections are not provided with masks which may lead to silicosis. Nor are the workers in the casting section provided with goggles. Disregard of the provisions of the Factories Act in respect of the guarding of driving belts and electric motors was seen in many factories. Sufficient provision is not also made for the escape of smoke and fumes in several factories.

Printing Presses.—With the exception of some large presses, most of the regulated and unregulated presses, especially the latter, are located in premises which were designed for purposes other than those of housing of factory. It is not surprising, therefore, that workers were found working in such places as stables, improvised sheds and ill-ventilated dark rooms. In many presses, walls and ceilings, seldom whitewashed or painted, had accummulated a wealth of dirt and cobwebs. In such presses, serious overcrowding and congestion are inevitable. The larger presses, too, appeared to suffer from a tendency towards congestion but this was perhaps due to pressure of work caused by war-time activity and may, therefore, be regarded as a temporary phase. In most cases, flooring, even when cemented and brick-laid, was dirty, uneven and unclean. Added to congestion was the acute discomfort caused by high temperature in summer, cold in winter and leaky roofs in the rainy months. Paucity of fans in most of these presses adds greatly to the discomfort of workers. In the survey of printing presses, particular attention was paid to discover the existence and incidence of lead-poisoning which is a recognised occupational disease in this industry. Unfortunately in the absence of regular periodical medical examination of workers and of scientific research directed towards determining the degree of prevalence of the disease, no definite and reliable evidence could be collected on the subject except in a few stray cases. Lead is an insidious industrial poison which enters into the system in one or more of the following ways: (a) A worker may swallow minute particles of lead when it is converted in the stomach by the hydrochloric acid of the gastric juice into a choloride and

this, by the way, is readily soluble. (b) A lino-operator or a worker in the lead furnace may inhale lead fumes. (c) Compositors, while handling lead, may absorb it from the skin. Workers in printing presses who constantly handle lead are prone to the slow absorption of the minute particles of the metal through taking their meals with unwashed or not properly washed hands. It is significant that, in many presses, both employers and employees had not so much as heard of lead-poisoning. In view of this, it is not surprising that there was hardly any consciousness of the necessity of mitigating the incidence of this menace. In some presses, soap, occasionally of antiseptic quality was being provided by employers. But it is doubtful whether in most cases this was being done as a safeguard against lead-poisoning. Nail brushes were in use in not more than 3 or 4 printing presses. The knowledge of the possibility of lead poisoning by inhaling lead fumes appeared to be equally poor. Even in presses which had arrangements for letting out lead fumes, the position was not always satisfactory. Exhaust pipes by themselves may not be enough. What is needed is that they should be fitted on to exhaust fans, so that the fumes may be entirely sucked out. No definite opinion on the prevalence of lead-poisoning in this industry can be expressed by us, as the matter is one for medical research to determine. What is significant for us is: (a) the general ignorance of the nature and possibility of lead-poisoning in this industry on the part both of employers and employees, and (b) lack of adequate safeguard against this occupational disease. The incidence of the disease may not always be fully detected. In the absence of scientific investigation of this problem, it is, however, essential that each press should display notices in conspicuous places giving the causes of lead-poisoning and how best to remove them. The employers should in addition bring home to the workers the necessity of cleaning hands and finger nails, thorough rinsing of the mouth before eating, regular daily baths after work and avoidance of food and drink in work-rooms. They should also instal suitable exhaust arrangements, bath-rooms and wash basins fitted with nail-brushes. Inspectors of Factories should insist on them and also see that arrangements are in force for proper ventilation and *wet cleansing* of floor which should invariably be cemented. A gradual deterioration of eye-sight is another occupational disease in the printing industry. Inadequate and unsatisfactory lighting arrangements inevitably put a heavy strain on the eyes of compositors and spoil their vision.

Glass Industry.—The frequency of minor accidents like burns and cuts is very high in glass factories. In the smaller concerns, most of the floor area is occupied by the furnace around which blowers and helpers blow molten glass and swing the blow pipes. The smallness of the floor area per worker is in itself, therefore, a contributory cause of cuts and burns in spite of all the care and attention which the workers may give. Another cuase for the frequency of accidents is that most of the workers go about their task barefooted. Small pieces of glass which lie scattered on the floor pierce the skin. Again, red-hot electric wires are used to cut the tubings and cases of burns often occur, as no gloves are generally given to or worn by the workers who manipulate them. With the exception of a couple of factories, no steps are taken by employers to protect the workers against cuts. A number of diseases from which glass workers suffer are occupational in character, although they may not find a place in Schedule III

to the Workmen's Compensation Act. For instance, the incidence of asthma and bronchitis is so high among blowers and helpers that they have to stop work intermittently, more so in winter when asthmatic attacks become frequent. Mouth blowing over-strains the lungs and workers easily catch respiratory diseases. Moreover, the use of the same blow pipe by several workers spreads the contagion to all. Several workers, particularly the helpers and blowers, are susceptible also to pleurisy and pneumonia. During the rains, they may rush out into the open from the furnace shed and catch chill. It appears that, as long as there are no shelters for the workers adjacent to the furnace shed, such cases are bound to occur. It is also reported that some cases of silicosis have been detected among the mixers who work in closed rooms in an atmosphere laden with the dust of silica, lime and other chemicals. Besides injuring the lungs, the dust affects the eyes of the workers. The glare of the furnace fire has also a deleterious effect on eyes. Nevertheless, it was found that gloves and goggles were provided only in a few factories. In a number of cases, the factories do not adhere strictly to the scheduled hours of work. It may happen that the molten glass is not ready at the right hour, due to insufficient heating or any other technical reason. The work naturally commences late and the employees are detained for an hour or two after the scheduled hours of work without getting overtime according to the Factories Act. The quantity of glass prepared is so adjusted that it can all be blown only if the existing strength of workers work for 8 hours. If the blowing operations start late, they are carried on till all the glass is consumed. Again, as Section 35 of the Act (relating to weekly holidays) has been made inoperative in regard to glass factories in some provinces, it becomes well nigh impossible to find out if a worker is granted a holiday after 14 days' work. Sometimes, workers work on the 15th day under assumed names while an absence is registered against their real names. Conditions in the cottage shops at Firozabad are deplorable. It was about a decade ago that Mr. Dixon expressed his opinion of these shops in the following words:—"The conditions under which the cottagers make bangles at Firozabad have to be seen to be properly appreciated. Most of the so-called cottage factories consist of small one-roomed buildings, the floors of which are almost entirely monopolised by an open furnace containing a number of fire-clay pots of various coloured glasses. None of the cottage bangle factories have chimneys and they are always full of smoke". The U.P. Government have since made efforts to improve conditions and have at their own expense provided five model buildings with non-draught ventilation arrangements for the *jurai* work, but these accommodate only an insignificant proportion of the workers. The rest continue to work in the ill-ventilated one-roomed buildings. This is all the more serious as these cottage shops employ a large number of children. Nor are the conditions of work any better in the smaller *bhattas* where *shishgars* manufacture bangles with or without the aid of hired labour. The work here is entirely unregulated and children and adults work continuously for long hours near the open furnace. The Employment of Children Act is not applicable to these cottage shops and children get emaciated, weak and rickety and spoil their eye-sight at an early age.

Sugar Industry.—On the whole, the general sanitary and working conditions in the factories in Madras and Bombay may be said to be better than those obtaining in U.P. and Bihar. The foul smell which

is characteristic of sugar factories in the United Provinces and Bihar is absent in the Ahmednagar factories. Sanitation in and around the factories in U.P. and Bihar has become an acute problem on account of the sullage water, molasses and the press mud. The effluent from the factory is allowed to flow into *katcha* tanks, streams, or soak pits. In Gorakhpore, two factories allow their sullage water to run into streams. In Meerut, one sugar factory has constructed *pucca* drains for this purpose. Soaking pits are found only in one unit in Bihar. The storage of molasses in *katcha* tanks leads to an unbearably stinking smell. The press mud was normally found stored inside the mill premises. The flooring in certain factories was broken at places and was not well cleaned at the time of our visits. The sulphitation tanks were found leaking in some cases, thus making the atmosphere very choking. There were steam leakages in certain factories in U.P., Bihar and Ahmadnagar. Some of the staircases of factories in Bombay and Madras were steep and slippery. In Gorakhpur, the wooden staircases in two units were in a dilapidated condition. Machinery and fast moving pulleys and belts were not properly guarded in some units. From the point of view of lighting and ventilation, the condition of sugar factories may be said to be satisfactory, except in one unit in Madras.

Cotton Ginning and Baling.—Ventilation and lighting are poor in many of the factories in the Punjab, C.P. and Berar and Khandesh. No factory seems to have taken any precautions to protect the workers from the dust evil. The atmosphere in ginning rooms is always laden with dust and cotton fibres which are injurious to the lungs. Not even in the biggest factories were workers provided with dust respirators. This dust trouble was, however, absent in the Double Roller ginning factories of Messrs. Volkart Brothers in which most of the processes had been mechanized. Loose garments are sometimes worn by workers working on machines.

Rice Mills.—Many of the rice mills particularly in the Madras province are small and old and are housed in the most unsuitable buildings. Some of them are so dark that work is done with the help of petromax lamps even during day time, only a few being electrically lighted. Night work in others is carried on with the help of kerosene lanterns. Sanitary rules are observed only in name to satisfy the provisions of the Act. The entire premises of some mills are filthy. The flooring needs repair; latrines have to be tarred and limewashed; drains are full of dirt; ashes of husk come out of the chimneys in large quantities and spread in the compound; and the surroundings of the mills are filled with husk and rubbish. Above all, the two chief evils in Madras are (i) the dust menace, and (ii) the smell nuisance caused by accumulation of water in the paddy-soaking tanks. Some of the millowners have provided dust collecting bags to remove the first evil but nothing has been done to combat the second evil, which can only be got over by a constant flushing of the paddy-soaking chambers. In Orissa, shifts are not properly observed, especially in those units where workers are housed near the mill premises. Women workers are, in many cases, employed continuously for 8 to 9 hours without rest and without a weekly holiday. In one case, a mill was warned by the Inspector of Factories that female labour should not be allowed to work after 7 p.m.

Mica Factories.—Whereas the working conditions are satisfactory in the bigger concerns, they are not so in the smaller units. The small

manufacturer usually seats the workers in a dark and ill ventilated room, with or without a verandah. There is considerable congestion and the average floor space per worker does not exceed 12 square feet. The sanitary arrangements are deplorable and workers often resort to the bylanes for lack of latrines and urinals.

Shellac Factories.—With the exception of a few power-using factories in Calcutta, no labour law is properly respected in this industry. The Employment of Children Act, for instance, applies to all shellac factories, whether regulated or not, but as stated above, it is openly violated in most places. In unregulated factories, ventilation and sanitation are very poor, the ceilings are low and the floors are generally kutcha and dirty. In most of the regulated and unregulated factories, the effluent passes through dirty open drains into the pits or municipal drains outside. The factory premises are usually dirty and unclean. Washing pits, tubs and drains are not properly cleaned at regular intervals and the stench emanating therefrom is unbearable. The walls are not regularly lime-washed in accordance with the provisions of the Factories Act and driving belts are not properly fenced. Grinding and screening are usually done in spacious verandahs but our investigating staff came across cases where these processes were carried on in small rooms, the dust nuisance caused thereby being responsible for the ill-health of several workers. The *bhatta* workers get cramped fingers and the *karigars'* eye-sight is affected due to constant exposure to heat. The *rankariyas* or persons who use their feet for crushing and washing the seed stand in water for long hours and develop sores on their feet and legs.

Bidi Factories.—Bidi-making goes on in small houses, sheds and verandahs both in towns and villages, majority of output being manufactured in villages. Though the bidi factories in C.P. come under the local Unregulated Factories Act, their conditions are very bad especially in rural areas where workers sit in kutcha houses with mud flooring and without any arrangements for urinals and latrines. The bidi workshops in Bombay proper are much worse. These are usually situated either in or behind *pan* shops. Their condition so far as light, ventilation and sanitation are concerned, beggars description. They are dark, dingy places with very few, if any, windows and with approaches that are ugly and insanitary. Men, women and children are huddled together and there is hardly any space for any worker to move about. Most of them have no lavatories. Where these exist, their sanitary condition is miserable. Bidi factories employing 20 or more persons in the Bombay Province come under Section 5(1) of the Factories Act and are subject to periodic inspections by the Factory Inspector. Most of the workshops in the City and Island of Bombay employ less than 20 persons and do not strictly observe even the conditions about sanitation, ventilation, lighting, etc., which are contained in the licences they have to obtain from the Municipal Corporation. Conditions in other centres in the Bombay Province are slightly better in respect of lighting, ventilation and congestion. The conditions in Bengal are no better in respect of ventilation, sanitation, and ordinary amenities of life. Latrines are conspicuous by their absence in several places. In every pan-bidi shop in Calcutta, there is a section for *bidi*-making. These shops are usually 5′ × 4′ × 8′. The space is partitioned into two decks by means of wooden planks, the upper portion being occupied by the *pan-bidi* shop and the

lower portion, which is on the road level, by 3 to 4 workers who literally crawl into it for work. The workshops in South India are generally low-roofed, dark and ill-ventilated with uneven mud floors. The places are seldom cleaned and are littered with the refuse of the leaves. There are rarely any windows and the only entrance is often a narrow door so that light and fresh air are totally inadequate in the workplaces. The workshops themselves are situated in dirty streets and lanes. The workers squat on the floor with their work baskets in their laps and overcrowding is so great that one can hardly squeeze between them. For lack of proper arrangements for the supply of drinking water in most of the factories, the workers generally go to the nearest hotel or street pipe to quench their thirst. Although women are employed in this industry, there are no *creches*. In some cases, our investigating staff noticed women administering opium to their infants so that they may not disturb them at work.

Cigar Factories.—In Madras, the cigar factories are located in semi-dark and insanitary godowns in the by-lanes of the George Town area. There is considerable amount of overcrowding and no drinking water, urinals or latrines are provided on the premises. With the exception of Spencers, the Trichinopoly and Dindigul factoreis are very small. The workplace in Trichinopoly is usually the front verandah of the proprietor's house, screened off from the street by gunny bags or palmyra leaves. The workers squat there with hardly any space to stretch their legs. In Dindigul, the work places are fairly well ventilated and overcrowding is not as great as it is in other places.

Carpet Factories.—At Mirzapur, carpets are manufactured mostly at the houses of loom-holders or master-weavers (*Karkhanadars* or *Dukandars*). The sanitary conditions of only some of the *karkhanas* (as the places of work are called) are satisfactory. There are latrines and bathing facilities in them but a majority of the *karkhanas* have not been whitewashed for years and the lighting and ventilation in some of them are insufficient. There are no first-aid appliances in any of the *karkhanas*. The factory buildings at Sirinagar are almost entirely made of wood. The outer walls, doors and windows generally consist of lattice. The inside walls are rarely whitewashed and the looms are usually so arranged that weavers cannot move freely from one end to the other. There are usually no central heating arrangements in winter, when latticed walls, doors and windows are pasted over with paper to shut out the biting cold. This arrangement is not at all helpful and thus affects the eyes of workers. In the case of factory buildings at Mirzapur, Srinagar and Amritsar, the floors are usually *katcha* and are littered with waste-wool, tobacco-ash, rubbish and dust. There are generally no first-aid boxes and no fire extinguishers. Rest shelters are conspicuous by their absence all over. There are no urinals anywhere and some of the factories at Srinagar have no latrines. Where latrines are provided, they are both insufficient and dirty.

Tanneries.—Working conditions are deplorable in most of the tanneries, regulated and unregulated. Apart from the lack of sanitation and suitable drainage arrangements for the disposal of effluent, flushings and hoofs are thrown on the premises indiscriminately. The effluent is generally allowed to run through uncovered kutcha drains into uncovered kutcha tanks, thereby emitting the worst possible stinking smell. It is only

in a very small number of cases that the effluent is allowed to run into underground drains. Bathing and washing facilities are usually absent. Flooring is uneven and kutcha in all but a few large tanneries. Boots and gloves for workers are essential in the lime house and tanyard. Scudders and unhairers must have aprons. Workers on the shaving and buffing machines should have nose caps and respirators. Protective equipment such as these is given only in larger tanneries. Where given, these are not always made use of. Unregulated tanneries rarely keep any first-aid boxes. Their roofs are usually low and working rooms dark. In some cases, hides are put up to dry on bamboo structures above the workers' heads.

Coir Mats and Matting.—The general working conditions are far from satisfactory in most of the regulated factories and are worse in unregulated fatories. Factory-buildings, especally in unregulated units, are kutcha (being built of coconut thatch) without proper ventilation, flooring or protection against fire. Flooring is usually uneven, sandy and is littered with dust and waste yarn. In some factories, pits are noticed in the weaving sheds. In several cases especially in unregulated factories, roofs are low. In some places, corrugated iron sheets are used with the consequence that working rooms become veritable furnaces in summer. The premises of all factories are dirty. In some cases there was a thick overgrowth of weeds and grass in the open spaces within the factories. Congestion of a serious character is seen in all units, particularly in the weaving, spooling and beaming sections. As a rule there are no guards for dangerous machinery and no exhaust arrangements are provided to keep away dust in the shearing and trimming sections or smoke in the dyeing section. Washing facilities are inadequate in several places. Even though tubs and taps are provided in all the regulated factories, workers in the stencilling department are not given soap and soda in sufficient quantity for washing off the dyes.

Manganese Mines.—In the Central Provinces manganese mining is carried on at different levels, there being five such levels in one big mine. Res shelters are usually not provided, the reason stated being that workers can go to their quarters situated near the mines. The underground workers take rest, in the absence of shelters, either at their places of work or in some hollow space caused by the removal of ore. Where rest shelters are provided for the surface workers, they are of brick walls and thatched roofs, no seats being provided in them. Latrines and urinals are not provided in most of the mines. Although there are a large number of women workers, there are no *crèches* provided for their children. A rest shelter is *sometime* used as creche and an elderly woman put in charge of it. Where underground work is carried on in C.P., the supply of candles is not adequate. It was noticed in one mine that six workers were working in the light of one candle. Straight walking in the underground mines is difficult, if not impossible, owing to projecting stones and low roofs. Arrangements for light and ventilation underground are poor in mines in the Central Provinces but are much better in the Shivrajpur mine in Bombay. The Shivarajpur mine alone has provided on the surface bath-rooms fitted with water-taps for underground workers.

Mica Mining.—Conditions inside a mica mine are as bad as they could be. Wooden ladders are very often used for negotiating the mines

and kerosene lamps and candles are used in most of them for lighting purposes. The ventilation in upper levels is generally good in mines owned by bigger firms but, as one goes deeper, conditions become worse. In mines owned by small mine-owners, ventilation is very poor. Since water is not regularly pumped out from the mines, the underground workers are everywhere found working in water.

Mineral Oil.—The refineries, workshops and the tin factory of the Assam Oil Company are subject to the Factories Act and the working conditions are generally satisfactory therein, but the bulk of the workers of hours and health and to few statutory regulations in respect of safety employed in the oilfields are subject to no statutory protection in respect Oilfields are given complete exemption from the operation of the Indian Mines Act. The following observations of the Royal Commission may be quoted in this connection: "We are of opinion that the protection of the law in regard to rest days, hours, health and safety should be extended to workers on the oil fields. We also think that labour statistics analogous to those for factories and mines should be compiled and published. We, therefore, recommend that conditions on the oil fields be examined by Government with a view to determining whether the end can be achieved by modifying the present exemption and applying appropriate provisions of the Mines Act, or whether separate legislation should be passed for the regulation of hours, rest days, safety and health on oilfields".[1] Though the recommendation was accepted in principle by the Government of India, no action has yet been taken to implement it. There are no rest shelters; small smoking huts alone being provided for shift workers. Workers engaged in drilling soil their clothes by mud or dirty water but no overall or allowance in lieu thereof is given to them.

Plantations.—Many of the tea gardens in Assam and Bengal are situated in highly malarial regions and this has a blighting influence on the health of the workers. Many of the workers are anaemic and fall easy victims to disease. Further, most of the workers are recruited from distant places and life in tea gardens involves for them a change in climate and environments that cannot but have a depressing effect. To make matters worse, it often happens that food ration in tea gardens is not sufficient and most of the workers suffer from malnutrition. In the Kangra valley nearly 90 per cent of tea garden labour live in adjacent villages and come to work in the gardens every morning. In Dehra Dun about 43 per cent thus come from the villages and in Almora about 70 per cent. Nearly all the workers in South Indian gardens are recruited from the plains and the sudden change in elevation, rainfall and climate appreciably lower their resistance to disease. There is also a change in their diet. Women and children employed on work given to the maistry on a contract basis have to work unduly long hours and even instances of corporal punishment of children by the maistries with a view to exacting more work from them are not unknown. On many tea estates *creches* of a crude type are provided where small children of working mothers are cared for and fed. No *creches* are found in coffee estates. On some tea estates, hot tea without milk or sugar is served to the workers during the mid-day break in the rainy season but this by no means is a universal practice. No arrangements are made for supplying drinking water to the workers in the field. The rubber estates are mainly in the plains

[1] Report, p. 112.

and conditions of work are not so bad. One disadvantage, however, is that the workers' clothes get spoiled by the latex and no compensation is made to them.

Railways.—Some of the disabilities of the staff in respect of their working conditions, based partly upon our observations and partly upon the information supplied by the workers concerned are detailed below:— (i) *Gangmen.*—Not a single Railway Administration supplies complete uniform including footwear for the gangmen who have to carry on their work exposed to sun and rain and, sometimes, snow. On the B.B. & C.I. Railway, blankets are supplied to gangmen on the line from Bombay to Surat but not beyond. The B.B. & C.I. Employees' Union points out that the gangmen should be supplied with rain coats and not blankets, as the latter is inconvenient in the performance of their duties. (ii) *Carriage and Wagon Coolies and Fitters.*—On almost all railways, coolies and fiters working in the "sick sidings" have to carry on their work exposed to sun and rain as there is practically no provision for any shed over the "sick sidings". (iii) *Firemen*—Firemen are seldom supplied with goggles to protect their eyes against the glare. On some railways, it is complained that they are not given any over-all garments or, if given, only very sparingly. (iv) *Signalmen.*—On several stations of many railways there is no shed over the signal levers so that those who operate them are exosed to sun and rain. Moreover, it is complained that levers get frequently rusty on account of rain and become difficult to operate. Those working in the cabins complain that there is no supply of drinking water, or the provision of lavatories and urinals for them close to the cabins. (v) *Guards.*—The general complaint of the guards on almost all railways is that, as the relieving staff is insufficient, guards are made to work at a stretch without adequate rest.

European and Anglo-Indian guards are exempted from working shunting and van trains between Lahore and Wazirabad. Indian guards complained about this racial discrimination. The reply of Sir Andrew Clow, the then Transport Member, was that "no action was taken (on their complaint) as there is no running room for European and Anglo-Indian guards at Wazirabad". (vi) *Drivers*—The drivers on the South Indian Railway complain that the administration takes drastic steps by way of stopping the increments and promotion etc., if coal is not economised to the extent decided upon by the Locomotive Inspectors. (vii) *Clerks.*—The general complaint of the clerks in several of the offices both at the Headquarters and in the divisions of almost all the sampled railways is that they are over-worked, particularly as a result of the increase in the volume of work due to war. Moreover, owing to paucity of relieving staff, some of the clerks, at any rate, are not able to obtain compensatory leave. That this is true of the clerks even in the Railway Clearing Accounts Office, will be evident from the following passage: "There has been difficulty in giving compensatory holidays to some men. 554 clerks could not get the compensatory leave due to them during the last 6 months"[1]. (viii) *Running Rooms.*—The complaint of guards, drivers and others on running duty is that invidious distinctions are made between Indians and Europeans in respect of running rooms on some railways. Indian running-rooms are far inferior

[1]Legislative Assembly Debates—Vol. III—No. 5—3rd April, 1944—page 1862; Reply given by Sir Edward Benthall.

in several respects—crockery, furniture, servants, etc.—to European and Anglo-Indian running rooms. It is high time this distinction were abolished and the entire running staff treated alike for this purpose.

Tram and Bus Services.—For the convenience of staff called to duty in the early morning hours, a room was found set apart for them for their night's rest only at one place. While the condition of tramway workshops is fairly satisfactory, the seating arrangements in Depots are inadequate and unsatisfactory. Latrines are dirty and arrangements for drinking water rather inadequate. There are no rest-shelters, specifically set apart for the out-door staff at several halting points. It was complained that regulators who were expected to regulate the movements of tram cars and buses were not always supplied with watches. In Madras the bus drivers complained that driving buses fitted with producer gas plants causes giddiness, loss of appetite and in some cases permanent derangement of the digestive system. One complaint of the conductors was that they have to wait for 2 hours after regular working hours in order to pay in the day's collection and settle the accounts. No rest-shelters or tiffin sheds were provided for the benefit of the employees on buses.

III—Shifts.

Generally three types of shifts are worked in different industries. The single shift in which work is carried on during the day ordinarily lasts from 8 to 11 hours inclusive of the rest interval of half to one hour. In some cases, double-shifts are worked, one during day-time and the other in the night, each ordinarily lasting for 9 or 10 hours (or even more) continuously with one hour's interval. The third type is the multiple—shift system of 3 shifts, each of 8 hours with or without a rest interval of ½ hour with a general day shift. In some cases, there are two general shifts in addition to three continuous shifts. The multiple shifts may be of varying duration and may overlap. One justification claimed in respect of overlapping shifts is the continuity of processes in certain operations. To ensure this continuity, some of the workers are detained at work till such time as their counterparts in the succeeding shifts may be normally expected to take in relieving them. But the justification is hardly plausible, for this end may be served as well by inculcating a sense of punctuality among employees and by keeping a reserve force to replace the absentee workers. Otherwise, the actual working hours of certain workers are likely to be oppressively long as employers can easily abuse the system, without being detected by the Inspectors of Factories. Again, in systems where shifts are split, the larger spread-over may be very irksome to workers, unless they are housed on the mill premises. The Royal Coommission disapproved of the system of overlapping shifts and the workers' associations have vehemently opposed it. We are of opinion that overlapping shifts should not be permitted, except under exceptional circumstances.

Night Shifts.

In industries involving continuous processes, night shifts are a necessity. Opinion as to the desirability as well as the necessity of working night shifts in non-continuous processes in normal times is divided. Some employers contend that inadequecy of plant and the needs of production require it. According to the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association, night

shift "has the distinct advantage of lowering overhead costs, which is essential more particularly in these days of keen competition and of enabling the industry to cope with temporary increase in demand without additional outlay of fixed capital"[1]. Mr. Kasturbhai Lalbhai, a millowner of Ahmedabad, says:—"There is bound to be a greater tendency to work the night shift instead of producing by a single shift, because what is happening actually is that day after day with the inventions going on, machines are getting costlier and costlier and in order to meet the depreciation and interest charges on these machines, production has got to be taken out of them in a limited time, and it will certainly entail working night shift".[2]

It is no doubt true that night shift results in a reduction of overhead charges, speedy utilization of raw materials and decrease of costs but it has admittedly an adverse effect on the health of the worker and the quality and quantity of his output. Some employers maintain that night shift does not affect workers' health. Others—and official opinion is in support of this view—contend that it is unnatural and that it does affect their health. There are hardly any records to prove or disprove one or the other point of view. Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai, a millowner of Ahmedabad, carried out an enquiry in this respect in his mills and admitted before the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee that absenteeism among the night shift workers was 5 per cent, as against 3 per cent. among his day shift workers and that his mill hospital reported a larger number of patients from among the night-shift men than from among the day shift men. The Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association holds that "night work impairs the health of workers, causes higher absenteeism and curtails higher opportunities for social life". The following remarks of the Bangalore Cotton, Woollen and Silk Mills Company Ltd., are in a large measure representative of several others:—

> "We are not in favour of working night shifts in normal times. We have no statistics to show the effects of night work on the health of our workers, but in the long run we consider that it is bound to have a deleterious effect on their health. It has been frequently brought to our attention that the workers find it very difficult to sleep during the day, and that the taking of meals at unusual times affects their health adversely. The crowded conditions under which the majority of our workers live prevent them from getting a long uninterrupted period of rest by day because of the noise made by other dwellers in the house. Furthermore, working by night and sleeping by day is a habit which often takes a long time to acquire and although we make frequent changes between night and day shifts we consider that a lowering of the health standards of the workers will occur and that production is lower all-round".

Night shift, where introduced, is sporadically worked and, although it may lead to increased employment in the short period, it has an adverse effect in employment. It may thus draw workers into towns so long as it is worked and lead to unemployment with all its necessary evils when

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[1]Quoted in the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee Report, p. 164.
[2]Ibid.

it comes to an end. As regards the effect of night work on the quality and quantity of output, opinion is almost unanimous that production in the night shift is bound to be lower than in the day shift. Most of the employers also admit that the quality of production deteriorates in the night shift due to greater absenteeism, the difficulty of enforcing effective supervision and the natural fatigue that overtakes a worker in the early morning hours. The Tata Iron and Steel Company suggest that "night work should only be held when unavoidable". The workers' organisations are unanimously against the working of night shifts but, if they are unavoidable, the day and the night shift should be so arranged that the entire working of the machinery stops after midnight. The Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association rightly pleads that "it is desirable to mitigate the hardships caused to night workers by limitation of hours and other provisions which alleviate the deleterious effects of night work" and suggests "that no mill shall work after 1 a.m., mills working night shifts shall provide sleeping accommodation for at least 20% of the shift workers, that adequate bus services shall be provided to enable them to reach home earlier and that mills shall provide suitable canteens, satisfactory drinking water and other amenities and that workers of the day and the night shift shall change over every month".

In cases of seasonal and continuous process factories, night shifts may have to be continued as at present with, of course, a proper arrangement for a changeover after specific periods. It is, however, claimed that, in such cases, there should be increased payment for the night shift workers and that facilities for carrying them home should be provided.

As has already been said, the night shift lowers overhead costs and enable the industry to cope with the increase in demand without the installation of additional plant. Its working can, therefore, be effectively checked if there is a national, or preferably an international, agreement over the subject.

IV—Essential Facilities.

(a) *Rest Days in Continuous Process Factories.*

As regards rest days, the practice in continuous process factories differs in accordance with the rules laid down and enforced by different Provincial Governments and States. Four major categories are, however, discernible in regard to rest days:—

(1) Every Sunday, or Friday in a few cases, usually for the general shift workers.

(2) An off day, generally on week days (e.g., in several cement factories and a few paper mills).

(3) A continuous rest of 32 hours after 10 to 13 days' work (as in several sugar factories) according to the Factories Act.

(4) Two rest days in a month as in the Assam Oil Company.

The running staff on Railways in British India are exempted from the Hours of Employment Regulations but every endeavour is claimed to be made to keep their working hours well within the maximum limit of 60 per week. All those railway servants who are governed by the Factories Act enjoy a weekly day of rest.

The All-India Trade Union Congress, voicing the general sentiments of workers, suggests that factories involving continuous processes should not, under any circumstances, be granted exemptions from weekly days of rest which should be made strictly applicable in their case.

(b) Latrines and Urinals.

Most of the regulated factories satisfy the letter of the law by providing seats in proportion to the number of workers, but the adequacy or otherwise depends on the type of latrines and the system of cleansing provided. Flush-out latrines are certainly much more serviceable than an equal number of kutcha or non-septic ones. Even apart from it, the general structure, location, upkeep and cleansing service are very unsatisfactory in a large majority of factories. In several cases, workers have to wade through cess-pools to enter the latrines in the rainy season. Some latrines and urinals have no roofs; where corrugated iron sheets are used for roofs they are generally leaky. In some of the latrines there is no privacy and employers feel that there is no need for it. The use of disinfectants is rare, and the accommodation becomes inadequate as night soil is not removed regularly at short intervals due to inadequate number of scavengers employed and lack of supervision. This sorry state of affairs is responsible for the general habit of the workers in preferring open fields to latrines. Only rarely are latrines and urinals provided separately and in several cases latrines are not provided separately for males and females. The condition in unregulated factories is still more deplorable in this respect in as much as the employers rarely consider the provision of an adequate number of latrines a necessity. In fact, in many unregulated factories, latrines, and urinals are not provided at all and workers often convert the nearest drain into a lavatory. The ratio of the number of latrines and urinals to the number of workers differs from one regulated unit to another, ranging from 1 seat for every 20 workers to 1 seat for every 50 workers. In C.P. no latrines and urinals are generally provided in the camps erected for mining labour. Defecation areas are however, marked off. At some mines, trenching of night soil is in practice and at some others large herds of swine are kept. Septic latrines are rare in these areas due to the scarcity of water. Bore-hole latrines are not feasible on some mines due to the hard impervious rocks met with there. In the Kolar gold field good sanitary arrangements are made both underground and in the miners' colony. In Iron Ore mines latrines are provided only near the offices but nowhere near the mining faces. Latrines are provided on the surface in mica mines but not underground. On plantations also no latrines or urinals are provided in the fields for the use of the workers during working hours. In the plantation factories, however, latrines are provided. The upkeep of latrines is, on the whole, most unsatisfactory. They are neither whitewashed nor tarred in several industrial concerns. Sanitary arrangements must be statutorily improved both by providing a larger number of latrines and urinals and by insisting upon their being 'water-borne' or 'flushed', wherever possible, and kept in a sanitary condition.

(c) Drinking Water.

Most of the factories make some sort of provision for drinking water but the arrangements are neither uniform nor always satisfactory. Earthen pots used for storage are not properly cleaned in some cases.

Water cups, where provided, are not kept clean either. Very often, the employers do not engage workers for serving water at the places of work. In such cases, workers sometimes make small contributions to pay the watermen privately engaged by them. Where pipe-water exists, the tap is the only place for drinking water. During summer, no special provisions are made for keeping the water cool; only in a few cases iced water is supplied. Conditions in this respect are much worse in the case of small units among the regulated factories and in unregulated establishments. In many cotton ginning factories and bidi workshops, for example, drinking water is not even available. Very often the earthen pots meant to keep water were found empty and dirty. In the rice mills in Bihar, although tube wells are provided, water could be had only when the engine was working. In South India, the bidi workers had generally to go to the nearest street tap to drink water. In the salt mines at Khewra, fresh drinking water is taken to the mines every day in tanks. In the iron ore mines the workers themselves have to carry drinking water with them. No arrangements are generally made for the supply of drinking water in manganese mines. Only one mine in the Central Provinces supplies cool water to the workers in summer. No special arrangements are made for providing drinking water to underground workers in mica mines although water is kept in cisterns on surface. Generally water is brought from distance and stored in the cisterns but sometimes water is even obtained from abandoned mine pits. Sometimes brackish water from draw-wells or step wells is also used which leads to guineaworm infection. On plantations no arrangements whatever are made for supplying drinking water to the workers in the field. Some tea estates serve hot tea without milk or sugar to the workers a midday.

As our enquiries indicate, there is need for much improvement, especially in regard to the provision of cool water in summer. Sufficient drinking water is not supplied in unregulated mines, quarries and factories. There is certainly a great necessity for making statutory rules prescribing definite standards regarding structure, storage and cleanliness of the water room and making the provision of cool water compulsory. The Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee recommended in this connection that "the Government of Bombay should modify the Factory Rules in such a way as to make it compulsory for all factories, where more than 100 workers are employed, to arrange for an adequate supply of cool drinking water according to standards to be prescribed by the Chief Inspector of Factories and for the supply of such water in or near all the department of a factory".[1]

(*d*) *Rest Shelters.*

Rest-shelters for taking meals or for use during intervals are provided only by a small number of concerns. Most of the cotton mills provide them though they are almost non-existent in jute mills in Bengal. The larger units in other industries have set up rest shelters or dining sheds but they are an exception rather than the rule in smaller units. Unregulated factories make no such provision. Where rest shelters are provided, their structure usually consists of brick walls and roofs of corrugated iron sheets. In a number of cases the walls are kutcha, but in many they are of stone or cement. None of the factories seems to have pre-planned erection of these rest shelters. They are put up at any

[1]Report of the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee, p. 302.

place convenient to the employers. The sheds are not generally spacious enough to accommodate all or most of the workers. More often than not, they are dirty and unclean and the workers prefer the shade of trees to them. Again, in most cases, no seating arrangements are made and the workers have to squat on the floor to take their meals. Under these circumstances, if many workers do not make use of the shelters as some employers complain, the reason is obvious. Only in very exceptional cases are shelters provided separately for male and female workers. In mines, generally, no rest shelters are provided either underground or on the surface. The workers either go to their quarters if they are near or take rest under the shade of trees. In the rainy season the trees, however, do not provide shelter. The underground workers take rest either at their places of work or in some hollow space caused by the removal of the ore. The very few shelters provided on the surface are kutcha and are not adequate in number or equipment. A few sheds seen in some mines are actually meant for the blacksmiths who sit there to sharpen the miners' tools. There are no rest sheds for P.W.D. workers.

It is distressing to see workers sitting under trees or squatting on the ground in dirty premises or seeking dark nooks in their departments to eat their meals. Statutory provision of rest shelters (separately for males and females) with adequate seating arrangements can alone help the workers in this matter.

Chapter VII.

WAGES AND EARNINGS—I

Introductory.

Owing to the almost day-to-day changes in the earnings of workers due to fluctuations in the price level, we felt that the data to be obtained regarding wages should relate not only to earnings which might become out of date even before they were published, but also to basic wages. We may, however, point out that in spite of the very strong comments made by the Royal Commission some fifteen years ago for the improvement of labour statistics, little or no progress has been made in this direction except in the Province of Bombay, and even in so highly industrialised a province as Bengal, no authentic information is readily available regarding wages. We had, therefore, to make special efforts to obtain data regarding wages and earnings in the industries selected for purposes of *ad hoc* surveys. In doing this, three separate methods were adopted. Firstly, in some 12 industries a wage census was conducted either on the basis of a sample of units or a sample of employees. Among the principal industries covered by the Wage Census were; Cotton, Jute, Cement, Paper, Wool, Silk, Matches, Gold, Salt, Dockyards and Cigarettes. In regard to other factory industries, such as Engineering, Sugar, Cotton Ginning and Baling, etc., the wage data were obtained by our investigating staff from the muster rolls of the factories verified by personal enquiries from workers and managements in the form attached to the Committee's *ad hoc* Questionnaire. In the case of Railways the data were obtained from published official records. In the salt mines at Khewra, it was found impossible to conduct a Wage Census owing to the method followed by the management of keeping the muster rolls, although a very detailed Wage census was conducted in the four Gold Mines at Kolar. In the other mines such as Mica, Manganese, etc., considerable difficulty was experienced in getting the wage data owing to the unsatisfactory character of the pay rolls and much of the information had to be obtained by the field staff by personal enquiries. As regards Plantations in Assam, the wage data are based on the figures supplied by selected gardens and those contained in the annual Reports of the Controller of Emigrant Labour, Assam, on the working of the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act. They could not, however, be verified on the spot as the Indian Tea Association felt that if the Committee's investigating staff visited the gardens for this purpose it would unsettled labour as the area was in the war zone. The Bengal and South Indian Plantations gave facilities for making detailed investigations and the data used in this chapter were collected from the muster rolls and supplemented by personal enquiries on the spot.

The wage data collected during the course of the Committee's investigations could either be presented industry-wise or region-wise. We felt that, in order to get a complete picture of wages in each industry, the first method would be more useful, and have consequently dealt with wages and earnings in the following pages in the following order:

Large and small scale factory industries, Railways and other Transport Services Plantations and Mines and other miscellaneous industries and trades.

I—Cotton Mills.

A wage census was conducted on the basis of a representative sample of workers in all centres of the cotton industry except those in the Bombay Province. The reason for not covering the centres in this Province was that adequate data relating to wages and earnings therein were available in the reports of the Bombay Labour Office and of the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee. These have, however, been brought up-to-date on the basis of the information collected in the course of our present enquiries. Owing to the differences in occupational nomenclatures, the type of work done, hours of work, etc., no strict comparisons of wages and earnings are possible as between the different centres of the industry. An attempt has, however, been made to present the data for all the important centres, except those in the Bombay Province, in a tabular form at the end of the section.

(i) *Bombay Province.*

In the year 1938, workers in cotton mills employed in the Province of Bombay received certain increases in their wages as a result of the recommendations made by the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee.

As a result of these increases, the wage bills in the three important centres of the industry, namely, Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur were esimated to have increased by 11.9, 9 and 14.3 per cent respectively. In the Province, the wage level is slightly higher in Ahmedabad than in Bombay City. The Sholapur wage level is distinctly very much lower. In the smaller centres such as Barsi, Gadag, Hubli, etc., both the wages and earnings are, comparatively speaking, extremely low and as there are no other alternative sources of employment there and as labour is not well-organised, the workers had to remain content with the lower wage levels. In Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur, the payment of dearness allowance is linked with the cost of living index numbers which are published by the Bombay Labour Office. The allowance was first granted to cotton mill workers in Bombay city on the recommendation of a Conciliation Board. The present position is that the allowance is paid at a flat rate irrespective of income.

The following table shows the cost of living index number and the monthly amount paid by way of dearness allowance to those working 26 days in the month:—

Table 46.

Dearness Allowances in Bombay.

Month	Cost of living index number.	Dearness allowance p.m.
		Rs. A. P.
August, 1941	.. 131	6 3 0
July, 1942	.. 168	14 15 0
July, 1943	.. 235	30 13 0
July, 1944	.. 236	31 1 0
September, 1945	.. 243	32 11 0

The principle adopted is to compensate the workers in Bombay City to the extent of 76.5 per cent of the increase in the

cost of living. In Ahmedabad, the parties decided by mutual agreement that compensation should be at a flat rate to the extent of about 97 per cent of the increase in the cost of living. Thus in June 1944, dearness allowance granted to the workers earning below Rs. 200 p.m., amounted to about Rs. 53 p.m. In Sholapur, on the other hand, where the workers are comparatively ill-organised, the present scale of dearness allowance per month comes, on an average to about Rs. 22-5-6 only. In the smaller centres dearness allowance is somewhat inadequate and varies from Re. 0-5-6 per worker per day in Gadag to Rs. 1-2-3 per worker per day in Poona. In one centre, namely, Gokak, no dearness allowance in cash is paid to workers, but they are given principal commodities of consumption at pre-war rates and it is estimated that, on an average, the cost of these to the employer comes to Rs. 20 per worker per month.

The following table shows the monthly wages and earnings of workers in important occupations in the year 1944 in Bombay City:—

TABLE 47.

Wages and earnings in selected occupations in Bombay City in 1944.

Occupation.	Monthly Basic Wage or earning.	Interim increase.	Dearness Allowance[1]	Total monthly earnings of full time workers.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Doffers	16 14 10	2 10 3	31 5 0	50 14 1
Ring Siders	22 3 4	3 7 6	31 5 0	56 15 10
Tarwallas	20 15 10	3 4 6	31 5 0	55 9 4
Drawing Tenters (Single)	27 9 0	3 7 0	31 5 0	62 5 0
Grey Winders	18 10 0	2 14 3	31 5 0	52 13 3
Colour Winders	21 1 0	3 4 6	31 5 0	55 10 6
Reelers	18 6 0	2 13 9	31 5 0	52 8 9
Two-loom Weavers	39 10 0	3 11 5	31 5 0	74 10 5

It will be seen from Table 47 that in the case of certain occupations like doffers dearness allowance amounts to nearly twice as much as the basic wage and that for a full month's work no worker earned less than Rs. 50. In addition to wages and dearness allowance, all the mills in Bombay City have been paying a Profit Bonus since 1941. The bonus for that year was equal to 1½ month's wages and was paid only to permanent workers whose names were on the rolls on 31st December, 1941 and also on the date of payment. *Badli* workers who satisfied the above condition and had also worked for 75 days during the year were entitled to it. In 1942 the following two years, a bonus equivalent to two months' earnings was paid. A few mills also pay a good-attendance bonus to their workers in certain departments and some mills pay an efficiency bonus in certain occupations. The wage period in Bombay City is a month and wages are paid within ten days of their becoming due.

[1]Average for the 12 months of the year 1944.

In Ahmedabad, the wage period is a *hapta* either of 16 or 14 days and it has not, therefore, been possible to present the monthly wage figures. The average daily wages of workers in important occupations are set forth below:—

TABLE 48.

Daily wages and earnings[1] in selected occupations in Ahmedabad in 1944.

Occupation	Time or Piece	Average daily wage. Rs. A. P.
Drawing tenters (men)	T	1 0 0
Drawing tenters (men)	P	1 0 4
Drawing tenters (women)	P	1 0 2
Slubbing tenters (Men) with back tenters	P	1 1 3
Without back tenters	T	0 15 9
Without back tenters	P	1 3 2
Single machine Inter tenters (men)	T	1 0 0
Single machine Inter tenters (men)	P	1 12 0
Single machine Roving tenters Men (doing own creeling)	T	0 15 9
Single machine Roving tenters Men (doing own creeling)	P	0 15 10
Single machine Roving tenters Men (not doing own creeling)	T	0 10 3
Single machine Roving tenters Men (not doing own creeling)	P	0 14 7
Double machine Roving tenters men (doing own creeling)	P	1 5 7
Double machine Roving tenters men (not doing own creeling)	P	1 5 3
Single side siders (Men)	T	0 15 9
Single side siders (Women)	T	0 15 7
Double side siders (Men)	T	1 15 10
Double side siders (Women)	T	1 5 9
Doffers (Men and Women)	T	0 10 9
Grey winders (men)	T	0 15 10
Grey winders (Men)	P	0 9 11
Grey winders (Women)	P	0 8 5
Colour winders (Men)	T	0 7 0
Colour winders (Men)	P	0 11 4
Colour winders (Women)	P	0 10 3
Reelers (Women)	T	0 9 11
Reelers (Women)	P	0 8 7
Pirn winders (Men)	T	0 11 0
Pirn winders (Men)	P	0 13 0
Pirn winders (Women)	T	0 14 5
Warpers (Men)	T	2 0 3
Warpers (Men)	P	1 15 1
Warping creelers (Men)	T	0 9 7
Warping creelers (Women)	P	0 6 7
Front sizers	T	12 10
Back sizers	T	1 14 8

[1]Exclusive of dearness and other allowances.

Occupation	Time or Piece	Average daily wage. Rs. A. P.
Sizing Mixers	.. T	0 13 10
One loom weavers (Ordinary)	.. T	0 12 6
One loom weavers (Plain & Greys)	.. P	0 14 10
One loom weavers (Jaequards and Blankets)	.. T	1 4 4
Two loom weavers	.. P	1 9 1
Beam carriers	.. T	0 15 8
Coolies (men)	.. T	0 10 11
Coolies (Women)	.. T	0 · 8 · 2

The highest amount of dearness allowance paid in any single month amounted to slightly over Rs. 77 in December 1943. Thus, the least skilled worker such as a doffer with a basic wage of about Rs. 17-8-0 per month was receiving, including dearness allowance about Rs. 86-13-0 in December, 1944.[1] In addition to the dearness allowance, certain other allowances are also paid to workers. Since the year 1920 an attendance bonus of as. 8 per *hapta* is paid in the spinning department on condition of regular attendance for 8 days during a *hapta*. In most of the mills an efficiency bonus at the rate of as. 4 per loom per worker is paid to weavers whose production is above a particular level. As in the case of Bombay city, a bonus which worked out to about 1½ months' wages was given to the workers in 1941 as a result of an agreement between the Millowners' Association and the Textile Labour Association. In 1942 a bonus equivalent to 2½ months' wages was given to those who had worked for at least 8½ months in that year while in 1943 a bonus equivalent to 20% of the yearly earnings was given to those workers whose monthly wages were below Rs. 200 and who had worked for more than 75 days during the year. Only half the amount was paid to those workers who worked for more than 32 but less than 75 days.

As the following table will show, both wages and earnings in Sholapur are comparatively much lower than those obtaining in Bombay and Ahmedabad. Here, again, the amount of dearness allowance is in some cases twice and in others as much as three times the basic wage:—

TABLE 49.

Gross earnings per month in selected occupations in Sholapur in 1944.

Occupations	Daily wages or earnings in July '37. Dearness Allowance.	Total Gross earnings for 26 days' work.	Amount of 1938 increase for 26 days' work.
Drawing Tenters	0 9 8	2 15 3	22 5 6	41 10 1
Slubbing Tenters	0 11 4	3 7 0	22 5 6	44 3 2
Inter Tenters	0 10 9	3 8 0	22 5 6	43 5 6
Siders (Single)	0 8 10	2 11 0	22 5 6	39 6 2
Doffers (Ring and Frame)	0 7 6	2 4 7	22 5 6	36 13 1
Tarwallas	0 7 0	2 2 0	22 5 6	35 13 6
Two-loom wewavers	1 5 11	3 7 3	22 5 6	61 6 7
Winders—Grey	0 4 5	1 6 0	22 5 6	30 12 2
Winders—Colour	0 5 1	1 8 9	22 5 6	32 2 5
Reelers	0 4 1	1 3 6	22 5 6	30 2 2

[1]Since 8th August, 1945, dearness allowance is paid at the rate of 76%.

All the mills in Sholapur are paying a War Bonus since 1941. The bonus for that year amounted to ⅛th of the total yearly earnings (exclusive of dearness allowance) and was paid to those workers who were in service during the month of December of the year for which the bonus was paid. The bonus amounted to 1|6th of the annual earnings for the years 1942, 1943 and 1944.

All the smaller centres in Bombay Province have granted the increases in wages recommended by the Bombay Labour Inquiry Committee iin 1938. The following table gives the present position in regard to wages and earnings in these centres:—

TABLE 50.

Wages and Earnings in minor Cotton Textile Centres in Bombay Province in 1945.

Occupation	POONA		
	Basic Wages or earnings per month including 1938 increase.	Average Dearness allowance per month	Total
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Drawing Tenter	24 9 4	29 10 6	54 3 10
Slubbing Tenter	24 9 4	29 10 6	54 3 10
Inter Tenter	25 0 10	29 10 6	54 11 4
Roving Tenter	24 14 4	29 10 6	54 8 10
Sider	21 8 4	29 10 6	51 2 10
Tarwalla	...	...	...
Doffers	13 8 7	29 10 6	53 3 1
Two-loom Weaver	28 4 11	29 10 6	57 15 5
Grey Winder	13 8 7	29 10 6	43 3 1
Colour Winder	12 6 7	29 10 6	42 1 1
Reeler	8 3 6	29 10 6	37 14 0

TABLE 50—*continued.*

Wages and Earnings in minor Cotton Textile Centres in Bombay Province in 1945.

Occupation.	BARSI		
	Basic Wages or earnings per month including 1938 increase.	Dearness allowance per month	Total.
Drawing Tenter	16 2 11	13 0 0	29 2 11
Slubbing Tenter	16 3 11	13 0 0	29 3 11
Inter Tenter	17 1 6	13 0 0	30 1 6
Roving Tenter	13 13 9	13 0 0	26 13 9
Sider	13 6 0	13 0 0	26 6 0
Tarwalla	9 10 8	13 0 0	22 10 8
Doffer	9 0 11	13 0 0	21 0 11
Two-loom Weaver	29 15 11	13 0 0	42 15 11
Grey Winder	6 9 8	13 0 0	19 9 8
Colour Winder	13 8 7	13 0 0	26 8
Pealer	8 3 6	13 0 0	21 3 6

*D.A represents the average for two units only.

TABLE 50—*continued.*

Wages and Earnings in minor Cotton Textile Centres in Bombay Province in 1945.

Occupation.	GADAG		
	Basic Wages or earnings per month including 1938 increase.	Dearness allowance per month †	Total
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Drawing Tenter	13 8 7	8 15 0	22 7 7
Slubbing Tenter	14 5 5	8 15 0	23 4 5
Inter Tenter	11 7 1	8 15 0	20 6 1
Roving Tenter	11 1 10	8 15 0	20 0 10
Sider	12 11 8	8 15 0	21 10 8
Tarwalla	...	...	...
Doffer	7 9 2	8 15 0	16 8 2
Two-loom Weaver	16 10 5	8 15 0	25 9 5
Grey Winder	7 9 2	8 15 0	16 8 2
Colour Winder	...	...	...
Reeler	6 7 1	8 15 0	15 6 1

†D.A. is calculated at the rate of 5½ as. per day which represents the average o the rates paid in different occupations.

TABLE 50—*continued.*

Wages and Earnings in minor Cotton Textile Centres in Bombay Province in 1945.

Occupation.	GOKAK		
	Basic Wages or earnings per month including 1938 increase.	Dearness allowance per month ‡	Total.
Drawing Tenter	25 3 8	...	25 3 8
Slubbing Tenter	24 14 4	...	24 14 4
Inter Tenter	21 8 4	...	21 8 4
Roving Tenter	20 6 10	...	20 6 10
Sider	13 13 9	...	13 13 9
Tarwalla	...	...	...
Doffer	9 3 0	...	9 3 0
Two-loom Weaver	...	...	...
Grey Winder	13 13 9	...	13 13 9
Colour Winder	...	...	...
Pealer	6 0 4	...	16 4 0

‡D.A. is paid in kind, money value of which was Rs. 20/- p.m. on an average during the year 1944.

TABLE 50—*continued.*

Wages and Earnings in minor Cotton Textile Centres in Bombay Province in 1945.

Occupation.	SURAT.		
	Basic Wages or earnings per month including 1838 increase.	Dearness allowance per month ‖	Total.
Drawing Tenter	25 4 8	42 7 9	67 12 5
Slubbing Tenter	31 5 11	42 7 9	73 13 8
Inter Tenter	24 5 7	42 7 9	66 13 4
Roving Renter	24 0 7	42 7 9	66 8 4
Sider	22 9 5	42 7 9	65 1 2
Tarwalla	...	...	...
Doffer	13 8 7	42 7 9	56 0 4
Two-loom Weaver	13 8 7	42 7 9	56 0 4
Grey Winder	38 6 0	42 7 9	80 13 9
Colour Winder	9 13 3	42 7 9	52 5 0
Reeler	14 8 1	42 7 9	56 15 10

‖D.A represents the average for two units.

It will be seen that the earnings in the mills at Poona vary from Rs. 38 to Rs. 58, while at Barsi, Gadag, Gokak and Surat they vary between Rs. 21 and Rs. 43, Rs. 15|6|- and Rs. 25|9|-, Rs. 9|3|- and Rs. 25|3|- and Rs. 52|5|- and Rs. 80|13|- respectively. It has already been stated that the mill at Gokak does not pay any dearness allowance in cash but supplies commodities at pre-war prices. The wage level at Surat is largely influenced by that of Baroda and Ahmedabad. The Gokak mills paid a profit bonus equivalent to 2 months' wages during 1942-43 and 1943-44, while in the Poona mills the bonus paid was equivalent to 1|6th of the wages in 1943-44. At Gadag the bonus paid in 1944 amounted to 2 months' wages, while at Barsi it varied from 2 to 3 months' wages. In Surat, one unit paid bonus in 1943 on the same scale as in Ahmedabad while the other unit paid 1|6th of the basic wage for the year 1943 and 1944. The wage period is generally a month but in Surat, weavers are paid fortnightly. In Barsi, temporary workers are paid weekly.

(ii) *South India.*

(*a*) *Coimbatore.*

Among the South Indian centres, Coimbatore is one of the most important. The basic wage level in Coimbatore, however, is much lower than in the larger centres of the industry. The dearness allowance in Coimbatore is linked to the official cost of living index number and is paid according to a sliding scale at the rate of 75% (in cash) *plus* 3% to 45% (in kind) of the basic wage level according as the cost of living index moves between 178 and 225, but the basic wages themselves being low the amount of the average daily net earnings comes to about Re. 0-8-0 in the case of the least skilled operative such as a spinning doffer. The table below shows the wages and earnings in the cotton mills at Coimbatore for the month of January 1944:—

TABLE 51.

Wages and Earnings (weighted averages) of Cotton Mill Workers in Coimbatore in Selected Occupations for the month of January 1944.

Occupation.	Sex.	Piece or time rate.	Number of hours of work per shift.	Number of workers.	Average daily Basic wages earned.	Average daily net earnings.
					Rs. a. p	Rs. a. p.
Drawing Tenter ...	M	P	10,9	327	0 8 6	0 15 8
	M	T	10,9	142	0 7 11	0 14 5
Slubbing Tenter ...	M	P	10,9	234	0 10 3	1 2 10
	M	T	10,9	13	0 10 1	1 2 0
Inter Tenter ...	M	P	10.9	280	0 10 11	1 4 1
	M	T	10,9	2	0 8 11	1 1 9
Roving Tenter ...	M	P	10,9	797	0 10 4	1 2 8
	M	T	10,9	17	0 8 9	1 0 6
Tarwalla ...	M	T	10,9	114	0 10 10	1 4 9
Frame Doffer ...	M	T	10,9	246	0 6 2	0 12 6
Spinning Doffer ...	M	T	10,9	2,301	0 4 9	0 8 9
	F	T	10,9	72	0 3 8	0 6 9
Roving Doffer ...	M	T	10,9	700	0 6 3	0 11 5
	M	P	10,9	70	0 7 0	0 13 8
Double Sider ...	M	T	9	73	0 13 7	1 7 8
	M	T	9,10	3,448	0 9 7	1 1 8
Single Sider ...	F	T	9,10	127	0 7 11	0 14 2
	M	T	9,10	1,442	0 5 5	0 10 1
Half Sider ...	F	T	9,10	35	0 5 2	0 10 2
	M	T	9,10	2,655	0 6 8	0 12 6
¾-Sider ...	F	T	9,10	45	0 6 0	0 11 5
	M	T	9,10	6	0 6 9	0 14 7
Winder ...	M	P	9	5	0 4 10	0 8 8
	F	P	9,10	115	0 6 3	0 12 8
Colour Winder ...	M	T	9	2	0 7 10	0 13 8
	F	P	9	3	0 7 8	0 13 7
Grey Winder ...	M	P	9	33	0 6 9	0 12 2
...	F	P	9,10	91	0 6 10	0 11 10
Universal Winder ...	M	T	10	3	0 4 11	0 9 10
Cone Winder ...	M	T	9	12	0 7 5	0 13 0
	F	P	9	57	0 5 0	0 8 10
Pirn Winder ...	M	P	10	25	0 5 1	0 9 2
Cheese Winder ...	F	P	9	39	0 5 10	0 10 5
Single-loom Weaver ...	M	P	9,10	1,391	0 10 6	1 2 8
	F	P	9,10	25	0 6 2	0 11 0
Two-Loom Weaver ...	M	P	9,10	340	0 15 1	1 10 0
Reeler ...	M	P	9,10	94	0 7 8	0 13 6
	F	P	9,10	6,345	0 6 1	0 10 6
Cooly ...	M	T	9,10	919	0 7 6	0 13 11
	F	T	9,10	145	0 3 8	0 7 11
				TOTAL	22,799	

An annual bonus called the Profit or Prosperity Bonus is being paid by all the mills in Coimbatore. In 1943 and 1944 it amounted to 2 months' wages. In some mills, however, out of the bonus paid a sum equivalent to 1 month's wages has been invested either in Defence Savings Certificates or in the share capital of the mills co-operative Society.

The wage period is a month and wages are paid within 10 days of their being due.

(*b*) *Madras.*

The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills in Madras have introduced a standard basic wage scheme since 1st January, 1942. Under it fresh recruits are paid at new rates. Those in service on 31st December 1941 have their wages divided into two parts,

(a) basic wage, and

(b) the percentage, the latter being the difference between the December 1941 wage and the standard basic wage. On the first of January every year an increase of one per cent on the basic wage is given. The following table shows the wages and earnings in this mill:—

TABLE 52.

Average daily wages and earnings in selected occupations in the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills, Madras in 1944.

Occupation.	Sex.	Piece or time rate.	Number of hours of work per shift.	Number of workers.	Average daily Basic wages earned.	Average daily net earnings.
					Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Drawing Tenter ...	M	T	9	100	1 3 1	2 0 6
Slubbing Tenter ...	M	P	9	29	1 8 8	2 6 4
Intermediate Tenter ...	M	P	9	44	1 7 5	2 5 8
Roving Tenter (Single)	M	P	9	86	1 1 11	1 15 2
Roving Tenter (Two Frames).	M	P	9	6	1 10 8	2 9 2
Ring Piecer (Siders) ...	M	P	9	497	0 12 6	1 9 11
Roving Doffer ...	M	T	9	109	0 11 11	1 10 0
Frame Doffer ...	M	T	9	61	0 9 11	1 7 9
Ring Doffer ...	M	T	9	622	0 10 9	1 7 11
Grey Winder ...	M	P	9	64	1 1 8	2 0 3
Cone Winder ...	M	P	9	25	1 0 11	1 15 4
Pirn Winder ...	M	P	9	410	1 5 8	2 4 4
Reeler ...	M	P	9	80	1 5 11	2 2 4
One-Loom Weaver ...	M	P	9	94	1 4 9	2 5 2
Two-Loom Weaver ...	M	P	9	493	1 5 11	2 5 2
Twelve-Loom Weaver	M	P	9	80	2 3 0	3 7 4
Cooly ...	M	P,T	9	3,170	0 12 9	1 10 8
			Total ...	5,970		

Nearly 60 per cent of the workers in this mill have a basic wage of annas 12 and under Re. 1 per day while the earnings of more than 61 per cent of the workers fall in the earning category Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 1-12-0 per day. The scale of dearness allowance paid is linked to the official cost of living index number. According to the scale, annas 4 are paid per point of the rise in the index from 108 to 131, annas 3 from 131 to 160 and, thereafter, annas 2 per point. The mill pays a number of allowances and bonuses. A temporary war production bonus is being paind since January 1940 to permnaent workers at the rate of 6 pies per rupee of the wages earned. Since the number of persons working night shifts has greatly increased on account of war, such workers are paid at the rate of 1¼ times the normal rates of wages. A production bonus varying from 1% to 6% of the total earnings is paid to weavers when the production is above a specified minimum. An attendance bonus at the rate of Rs. 2|8|- per half year is paid to all permanent workers (whose pay is less than Rs. 100 p.m.) who have not been absent even for a day except on privilege leave. An annual profit bonus is paid to permanent workers at the end of every half year. It amounted to 12% of the wages for the half year ending 31st June, 1945.

(c) *Madura.*

The table below shows the wages and earnings in the cotton mills at Madura:—

TABLE 53.

Wages and Earnings (weighted averages) of Cotton Mill Workers in Madura in selected occupations in April 1944

Occupation	Sex	Piece or time	Number of hours of work per shift.	Number of workers.	Average daily Basic wages earned	Average daily net earnings.
					Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Drawing Tenter ...	M	T	8,9	465	0 9 3	1 7 8
Subbing Tenter ...	M	T	8,9	137	0 10 10	1 9 2
Inter Tenter ...	M	T	8,9	281	0 10 3	1 9 9
	M	P	9	5	0 11 9	1 3 0
Roving Tenter ...	M	T	8,9	476	0 10 7	1 9 3
	M	P	9	12	0 9 10	1 0 0
Roving Doffer ...	M	T	8,9	585	0 7 8	1 5 3
Ring Doffer ...	C	T	8,9	345	0 3 9	0 10 2
	M	T	8,9	2,281	0 7 5	1 6 6
	F	T	8,9	138	0 7 0	1 6 0
Spinning full siders ...	M	T	9	3,435	0 11 5	1 9 9
	F	T	9	193	0 7 2	1 3 1
Reeler ...	M	P	9	1,329	0 7 1	1 5 3
	F	P	9	2,897	0 7 3	1 6 1
Single Loom Weaver	M	P	9	11	0 11 11	1 7 4
Two-Loom Weaver ...	M	P	9	139	0 13 2	1 8 7
Winder ...	M	T	9	429	0 7 6	1 6 7
Cone Winder ...	M	T	9	212	0 7 11	1 7 9
Pirn Winder ...	M	T	9	10	0 6 4	1 2 2
Lessona Winder ...	M	T	9	517	0 3 4	1 8 8
Cooly ...	M	T	9	665	0 9 2	1 4 4
...			Total	14,562		

The workers in the larger units of the industry in this centre receive dearness allowance at the rate of Rs. 24 per month. The allowance is linked with the cost of living index number for Madura, but recently on a representation made by the workers in one of the units about its inadequacy, the management conceded an allowance higher than that justified by the rise recorded by the cost of living index number. The largest unit of the industry in this centre has also now laid down a basic minimum wage.

(iii) *Cawnpore.*

As in the Province of Bombay, in Cawnpore also, wage increases were given in the year 1938 as a result of the recommendations of a Committee appointed by Government. The scale of increase granted was annas 2½ in the rupee to those earning between Rs. 13 and Rs. 19 subject to the condition that no one gets more than Rs. 21-8-0, and only half an anna in the rupee to those earning between Rs. 40 and Rs. 59 subject to the condition that no one gets more than Rs. 60-8-0. The Committee also recommended Rs. 15 p.m. as the minimum wage. Wages in Cawnpore have not been standardized and there are considerable variations in the basic wage rates as between unit and unit. The following table shows the position as regards wages and earnings in selected important occupations:—

TABLE 54.

Wages and Earnings (weighted averages) of Cotton Mill Workers in Cawnpore in selected occupations in March 1944.

Occupation.	Sex.	Piece or time	Number of hours	Number of workers.	Average daily basic wages	Average daily earnings
					Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Drawing Tenter ...	M	P	10	660	1 1 8	2 5 4
Ditto ...	M	P	9	125	0 14 7	1 14 1
Slubbing Tenter ...	M	P	10	254	1 5 2	2 7 2
Ditto ...	M	P	9	61	0 14 3	1 13 5
Inter Tenter ...	M	P	10	389	1 0 0	2 2 4
Ditto ...	M	P	9	118	0 13 4	1 12 10
Roving Tenter ...	M	P	10	890	0 13 8	2 0 3
Ditto ...	M	P	9	132	0 15 2	1 14 2
Mule Piecer ...	M	P	10	437	0 12 11	2 1 2
Ring Piecer ...	M	P	10	825	0 13 7	1 15 4
Ditto ...	M	T	10	1,089	0 11 1	1 13 1
Ditto ...	M	P	9	62	0 14 10	1 15 3
Ditto ...	M	T	9	116	0 11 5	1 10 5
Ring Doffer ...	M	P	...	353	0 10 5	1 12 4

TABLE 54—contd.

Wages and Earnings (weighted averages) of Cotton Mill Workers in Cawnpore in selected occupations in March 1944.

Occupation.	Sex.	Price or time	Number of hours of works	Number of workers.	Average daily basic wages.	Average daily net earning.
Ring Doffer ...	M	P	9	239	0 9 4	1 7 11
Winder ...	M	P	11	162	0 13 8	1 14 11
Ditto ...	M	P	10	286	0 12 10	1 14 4
Ditto ...	M	P	9	129	0 13 0	1 13 2
Ditto ...	F	P	9	4	0 12 10	2 1 3
Colour winder ...	M	P	10	67	1 1 4	2 4 8
Ditto ...	M	P	9	109	1 0 7	2 2 4
Grey winder ...	M	P	10	425	0 14 2	2 0 9
Ditto ...	M	P	9	447	0 9 10	1 8 7
High speed winder ...	M	P	10	160	0 15 8	2 4 7
Ditto ...	M	P	9	135	0 8 5	1 10 8
Reeler ...	M	P	10	1,031	0 7 10	1 11 0
Ditto ...	M	P	9	505	0 11 0	1 10 9
Ditto ...	F	P	10	50	0 5 6	1 7 9
Ditto ...	F	P	9	45	0 4 5	0 15 4
Single loom weaver	M	P	10	427	1 1 8	2 3 4
Ditto ...	M	P	9	841	1 1 5	1 14 5
Weaver (two-loom) ...	M	P	10	4,689	1 4 11	2 7 1
Ditto ...	M	P	9	3,897	1 4 5	2 4 4
Weaver (Three loom)	M	P	10	340	1 10 0	2 14 3
Weaver (Four-loom)	M	P	9	138	1 9 7	2 9 0
Coolly ...	M	T	10	1,508	0 9 4	1 11 8
Ditto ...	M	T	9	847	0 9 1	1 11 6
			Total...	21,992		

Dearness allowance is paid to cotton mill workers according to the scale sanctioned by the Employers' Association of Northern India. The rate of allowance paid varies according to the incomes, the highest rate being paid to those in receipt of the lowest wages. In August 1945, the lowest rate of allowance per day per operative in the lowest wage category was about annas 14 for every rupee of the basic wage. In addition to wages and dearness allowance, certain bonuses such as attendance and production bonuses are paid in some mills. Even prior to 1941, some of the mills in Cawnpore used to grant a profit bonus by way of *ex gratia* payment. The rate of the bonus is now fixed by the Employers' Federation and every mill pays it at the same rate. In the years 1942 and 1943, profit bonus was paid at the rate of annas 4 per rupee of basic wages.

(iv) *Bengal.*

There are large variations in the basic wage rates in the cotton mills in the different centres in Bengal. Information collected during the course of the Wage Census shows that about 12.49 per cent of the workers receive a basic wage under annas 8 per day, about half the labour force or 46.64 per cent of the total is found in the basic wage group annas 8 and under annas 12, 14.41 per cent in the wage group annas 12 to Re. 1 about a quarter of the labour force or 23.44 per cent in the wage group Re. 1 to Rs. 1-2-0 and about 3.02 per cent in the wage group Rs. 1-2-0 to Rs. 1-12-0. In the last group are found nearly three-fourths of the two-loom weavers. All the

units surveyed for the purposes of this enquiry pay a dearness allowance to their work-people, but this is not related to a cost of living index number. The scale adopted for payment shows a bewildering variation between centre and centre and unit and unit. Sometimes the allowance is graded according to wage categories. In a few units a fixed percentage of the wages is paid by way of dearness allowance. The units in Dacca pay at a flat rate of Rs. 12 to Rs. 13 per month to all the workers. The following table shows the wages and earnings in the cotton mills in Bengal:—

TABLE 55.

Wages and Earnings (weighted averages) of Cotton Mill Workers in Bengal in Selected Occupations in January 1944.

Occupations.	Sex	Piece or Time	Number of hours of work per shift.	Number of workers.	Average daily Basic wages earned.	Average daily net earnings.
					Rs. A. P	Rs. A. P
Drawing Tenter ...	M	P/T	9'8	84	0 9 4	1 4 6
Inter Tenter ...	M	P/T	9/8	121	1 0 5	1 15 6
Slubbing Tenter ...	M	P/T	9/8	73	0 12 3	1 7 1
Roving Tenter ...	M	P/T	9	82	0 12 2	1 2 11
Piecer ...	M	T	9	1,201	0 8 11	1 4 11
Double Piecer ...	M	T	8/9	116	0 11 3	1 10 2
Head Piecer ...	M	P	9	12	1 5 2	2 11 2
Doffer ...	M	T	8/9	633	2 8 9	1 5 8
Colour Winder ...	M	P	9	127	0 11 2	1 12 7
	F	P	9	31	0 11 4	1 5 11
Drum Winder ...	M	...	9	6	0 12 2	0 12 2
Pirn Winder ...	M	P/T	9	155	0 11 1	1 15 11
	F	T	9	10	0 10 0	1 0 5
Winder ...	M	T	9	59	0 13 3	1 11 9
	F	P	9	44	0 6 9	1 6 4
Resocona Winder ...	M	P	9	195	0 8 4	1 7 9
	F	P	9	285	0 5 4	1 4 4
Cone Winder ...	M	T	9	49	0 5 3	0 12 0
Inter Winder ...	M	P	9	13	0 6 2	1 2 7
Lessona Winder ...	M	P	9	21	0 11 2	1 10 7
	F	P	9	23	0 8 10	1 6 11
Cord Winder ...	M	P	9	2	0 10 4	1 9 7
Cheese Winder ...	M	P T	9	49	0 7 7	1 5 5
	F	P	9	3	0 8 2	1 7 5
Grey Winder ...	M	P/T	9	282	0 11 0	1 3 0
	F	P	9	134	0 9 1	1 0 6
Single-Loom Weaver ...	M	P	9	62	0 7 6	1 1 9
Two-Loom Weaver ...	M	P/T	9	2,735	0 15 5	2 4 9
Three-loom weaver ...	M	P	9	9	1 2 2	2 0 6
Weavers-Tape-Making	M	P/T	9	314	1 1 8	1 6 6
Reeler ...	M	P/T	9	289	0 3 4	1 3 9
	F	P	9	96	0 8 3	0 15 5
Cooly. ...	M	P/T	9	991	0 10 0	1 6 0
			Total ...	8,306		

In addition to wages and dearness allowances, an attendance bonus is paid in most of the units surveyed. A few units pay a production bonus as well. No profit bonus is paid by any mill in Bengal.

TABLE 56.

Frequency Table Showing Average Daily Net Earnings of Workers of Cotton Mills Surveyed in India (excluding Bombay Province) in 1944.

Name of centres	Under -/8/-	-/8/-& under -/12/-	-/12/-& under Re.1/-	1/- & under 1/4	1/4 & under 1/8	1/8 & under 1/12	1/12 & under 2/-	2/- & under 2/4.	2/4- & under 2/8	2/8 & under 2/12	2/12 & under 3/-	3/- & over.	Total number of workers.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
SOUTH INDIA.													
Madras	...	...	...	...	7.41	61.67	6.01	5.08	8.63	1.65	8.12	1.43	6,455
Coimbatore	4.98	43.05	21.39	24.50	3.91	2.04	...	0.13	...	...	...	...	22,799
Madura	1.28	2.53	1.39	4.23	38.63	51.33	0.61	...	...	...	...	...	14,609
Ramnad	...	36.82	53.03	7.53	2.62	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	611
Ambasumadram ...	...	...	...	...	18.32	81.68	...	...	...	...	...	...	4,928
Tinnevelly	...	28.36	3.73	9.98	9.69	24.12	14.43	10.69	...	...	...	...	991
Gudiathan	25.14	56.72	13.23	4.91	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	529
Salem	24.28	48.03	26.38	1.31	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	762
Trichinopolly ...	...	69.01	29.47	1.52	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	526
BRITISH INDIA.													
Bengal	...	...	0.90	10.57	13.28	26.38	22.23	1.54	0.11	1.03	22 96	...	8,306
U P. : Cawnpore ...	...	0.18	0.89	2.36	3.38	13.34	25.14	12 36	20.62	19 40	2.10	0.23	21 992
C.P. : Nagpur ...	...	...	...	...	19.68	17 72	43 86	9.93	7.71	0.87	...	0.23	13 474
Akola	...	...	...	...	0 26	43.54	27.44	8.31	9.07	11.28	0.10	...	1,950
Delhi : Delhi ...	...	...	...	1.08	1.42	1.85	5.79	27 05	21.09	7.73	4.33	10.45	19.19	7,83
Punjab : Lahore ...	...	...	...	15.43	10.16	35.25	19.73	3.02	3.91	6.45	6.05	...	...	1,02
Lyallpur	...	...	...	...	...	...	32.55	4.38	2211	40.96	...	...	...	2,329
INDIAN STATES :													
Indore	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.49	24.68	25.52	12.19	18.85	18.27	...	14,782
Baroda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	22.92	11.21	23.54	42.33	5,485
Mysore	5.88	7.26	22.02	24.75	16.16	14.33	6.32	2.28	...	...	...	...	...	7,313
Cochin	33.79	21.93	33.53	1.50	9.25	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3,078
Travancore	6.26	49.45	43.65	0.64	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,086
Pudukota	5.25	74.64	9.33	6.41	2.91	1.46	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	343
Total														1,41,209

(v) *Delhi.*

In Delhi there have been no changes in the basic wages paid by any of the four units since the pre-war period. It is difficult to discuss the average basic wages and earnings for different occupations in this centre in view of the fact that the hours of work are not uniform as between unit and unit and also in the same unit. Again the shift hours differ from six to nine in the same unit. For some occupations, however, it is possible to arrive at some idea of the rates of basic wages paid. For instance, the average wage in one unit for roving tenters working eight hours per day was Rs. 14-8-0 while in another it was Rs. 11-7-0. The average basic wage of a ring doffer working 7½ hours was 0-9-3 in one unit and 0-8-7 in another. The basic earnings of weavers, particularly two-loom weavers, show a very wide variation. This may be partly due to the different hours worked and also to the differences in the types of manufacture. The following table shows the average basic wages and earnings in certain important occupations in the industry:—

TABLE 57.

Wages and Earnings (weighted averages) of Cotton Mill Workers in Delhi in important occupations in 1944.

Occupation	Sex	Number of workers.	Piece or Time.	No. of hours of work.	Average daily basic wages.	Average daily net earnings.
					Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Drawing Tenters	M	127	P	8	1 6 0	2 11 2
Intermediate Tenters	M	114	P	8	1 0 0	2 4 6
Roving Tenters	M	184	P	8	0 13 4	2 2 4
Ring Doffers	M	391	P	8	0 9 3	1 13 5
Frame Doffers	M	130	T	8	0 9 2	1 13 4
Ring Double Siders	M	419	T	8	1 1 0	2 5 6
Ring Full Siders	M	422	T	8	0 12 10	2 0 10
Winders	M	128	P	9	0 8 11	1 10 3
Pirn Winders	M	276	P	7½	0 9 11	1 13 3
Grey Winders	M	277	P	7½	0 11 9	1 15 2
Cone Winders	M	269	P	7½	0 10 0	1 13 5
Weavers (one-loom)	M	296	P	9	1 1 7	2 3 1
Weavers (Two-loom)	M	2,329	P	9	1 10 11	2 13 5
Total	=	5,362				

Considering the frequency distribution of the workers in the various categories of basic wages it is seen that 5.86 per cent fall in the wage category below as. 8 per day, 18.31 per cent in the category as. 8 and under as. 10, 14.07 per cent in the category as. 10 and under as. 12, 11.97 per cent in the category as. 12 and under as. 14, 7.56 per cent in the category as. 14 and under Re. 1, and the rest or 42.23 per cent in the category Re. 1 to Rs. 2 and over. As regards net earnings, nearly half the workers are to be found in the earnings groups Rs. 1-12-0 to Rs. 2-4-0 per day. The percentage of those drawing between Rs. 2-4-0 and Rs. 3 and over per day comes to 41.72 per cent of the total. None of the mills has an incremental scale of pay for the operatives, although one of the bigger units gives annual promotions in deserving cases by earmarking certain higher posts for promotion. Excepting one unit which pays dearness allowance on a diminishing graded scale of income, the rest pay at a flat rate per month. The highest rate of dearness allowance was Rs. 32 per month in the Delhi Cloth Mills, the two others paying about Rs. 30 to Rs. 31-12-0 at the time of the enquiry. One unit which is a member of the Bombay Millowners'

Association pays dearness allowance at the rate fixed by it from time to time for operatives of member mills. One of the bigger mills has a system of paying a production bonus in certain departments while one unit pays a good attendance bonus of as. 8 per week for full attendance. The Delhi Cloth Mills have been paying to their workers both an annual and a quarterly bonus. In addition to these, rewards of Rs. 5 to Rs. 10 are given to each operative on festival days. Special rewards are also given at the discretion of the management to deserving workers. The annual bonus paid in 1944 amounted to Rs. 45 per worker and was given irrespective of the length of service or any other condition. The quarterly bonus given in October 1944 amounted to Rs. 25 if taken in cash and Rs. 27 if deposited in the company's Provident Fund or Savings Bank. The other large unit pays an annual bonus on the same basis and conditions as the Bombay Millowners' Association. One of the smaller units has given no bonus while the other makes an *ex-gratia* payment of Rs. 6 during Diwali and Holi holidays. The wage period in all these units is a month.

(vi) *Lahore.*

In the big units of the industry at Lahore, there are considerable variations both in the basic wages and earnings of workers in all important occupations. The table below shows the wages and earnings in selected occupations. The wage data which relate to the months of March and April 1944 shows that drawing and slubbing tenters have an average basic wage of about Rs. 1-5-0 per day, inter-tenters averaging Rs. 1-1-1 and roving tenters Re. 0-14-3. Doffers, both ring and frame, get an average basic wage of about Re. 0-7-4 per day. One loom weavers get as. 15 per day while two-loom weavers make Rs. 1-9-5 per day from their basic wage rates. The average wage of a cooly is in the neighbourhood of Re. 0-10-7:—

TABLE 58.

Wages and Earnings (weighted averages) of Cotton Mill Workers in Lahore in selected occupations in March and April 1944.

Occupation.	Sex.	Piece or time	Number of hours of work.	Number of workers.	Average daily basic wages.	Average daily net earnings
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
					Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Drawing Tenter ...	M	P	9	43	1 5 0	2 1 11
Slubbing Tenter ...	M	P	9	16	1 4 7	2 0 6
Inter Tenter ...	M	P	9	28	1 1 1	1 12 5
Roving Tenter ...	M	P	9	33	0 14 3	1 7 10
Half Piecer ...	M	T	9	31	0 8 8	1 3 3
Three-fourths Piecer ...	M	T	9	62	0 10 5	1 4 2
Full Piecer ...	M	T	9	94	0 13 8	1 9 4
Doubling Piecer ...	M	T	9	2	0 8 0	0 15 4
Ring Doffer ...	M	T	9	81	0 7 4	1 0 10
Frame Doffer ...	M	T	9	55	0 7 5	1 1 1
Reeler ...	M	T	9	4	0 10 0	1 11 11
Ditto ...	M	P	9	148	0 10 7	1 6 6
Ditto ...	F	P	9	24	0 10 5	1 4 0
Winder ...	M	P	9	76	1 1 3	1 8 1
Weaver (One loom) ...	M	P	9	34	0 15 0	1 7 10
Weaver (Two loom) ...	M	P	9	128	1 9 5	2 7 7
Weaver (One & Two Looms)	M	P	9	48	1 3 9	1 9 5
Cooly ...	M	T	9	117	0 10 7	1 3 10
Total ...				1,024		

The frequency of wages and earnings shows that 11.23 per cent of the workers receive a basic wage of less than as. 8 per day, 37.69 per cent between as. 8 and as. 12, 23.05 per cent between as. 12 and a rupee, while 28.03 per cent receive a wage which is a rupee and above per day. As regards earnings, no worker earns less than as. 12 per day, 15.43 per cent earn between as. 12 and a rupee, 45.41 per cent between Re. 1 and Rs. 1-8-0, 22.75 per cent between Rs. 1-8-0 and Rs. 2, while 16.41 per cent earn between Rs. 2 and Rs. 2-12-0. Unlike many other centres of the industry in the country, considerable changes have occurred in the basic wage structure since August 1939 and it is reported that as compared to the pre-war period, basic wages have gone up by 18 to 20 per cent. At the time of the enquiry, dearness allowance was being paid in one unit at the rate of as. 5 per day while in another unit a sliding scale was adopted which varied from 100 per cent of the basic wage if the wage was up to Rs. 10 per month to 29.6 per cent, if the basic wage was Rs. 75 per month. In the third unit those drawing up to Rs. 20 per month received an allowance of Rs. 8-8-0 per month. The largest unit at Lahore paid no bonus of any kind. One unit paid an annual profit bonus for the year ending 31st March 1943 equal to 1½ times the monthly earnings. About 50 per cent of the workers were benefited.

(vii) *Lyallpur.*

A wage census relating to the month of April, 1944 was conducted in the mill at Lyallpur and the following table shows the basic wages and earnings of workers in 16 selected important occupations:—

TABLE 59.

Wages and Earnings (weighted averages) of Cotton Mill Workers in Lyallpur in Selected Occupations in April 1944.

Occupation.	Sex.	Piece or time	Number of hours of work per shift.	Number of workers. daily not	Average daily Basic wages earned.	Average earnings including over-time allowances and bonuses
1	2	3	4	5	5	7
					Rs. a. p.	Rs a. p.
Drawing Tenter ...	M	P	8	63	0 15 9	2 5 1
Slubbing Tenter ...	M	P	8	19	0 15 1	2 5 3
Inter Tenter ...	M	P	8	47	0 11 11	2 1 3
Roving Tenter ...	M	P	8	32	0 11 10	2 1 1
Ring Doffer ...	M	T	8	246	0 8 5	1 11 1
Full Sider ...	M	T	8	439	0 13 5	2 0 1
Half Sider ...	M	T	8	79	0 8 8	1 11 4
Double Sider ...	M	T	8	1	1 3 0	2 5 8
Grey Winder ...	M	P	8&9	116	0 8 10	1 10 7
Cone Winder ...	M	P	8	36	0 10 5	1 11 6
Pirn Winder ...	M	P	9	53	0 10 10	1 12 1
Colour Winder ...	M	P	9	6	0 8 1	1 9 4
Reeler ...	F	P	9	32	0 6 9	1 9 5
Ditto ...	M	P	9	65	0 6 7	1 10 3
One Loom Weaver	M	P	9	107	0 11 6	1 12 5
Two Loom Weaver	M	P	9	871	1 6 1	2 6 10
Coolies ...	M	T	8&9	117	0 9 0	1 11 1
Total ...				2,329		

It will be seen that the average daily basic wage of female reelers is 0-6-9, of ring doffers 0-8-5, of grey winders 0-8-10, of inter and roving tenters about 0-11-11, of drawing and slubbing tenters about a rupee and of two loom weavers Rs. 1-6-1. Considering the frequency of wages and earnings, it is seen that only 5.80 per cent of the workers receive a wage between as. 6 and as. 8 30.91 per cent receive a wage between as. 8 and as. 12, 24.65 per cent between as. 12 and a rupee and 38.64 per cent over Re. 1. With the exception of a few tenters, all those having a basic wage of a rupee or more per day are two loom weavers. As regards earnings, no worker in this factory earns less than Rs. 1-8-0 per day; 36.93 per cent earn between Rs. 1-8-0 and Rs. 2; 13.11 per cent earn between Rs. 2 and Rs. 2-4-0; and the remainder (49.98 per cent) earn between Rs. 2-4-0 and Rs. 2-8-0. A basic minimum wage of Rs. 12-8-0 per month both for males and females has been laid down. The workers in the spinning department are paid 9 hours' wages for 8 hours' work. In addition to the basic wage a dearness allowance at a flat rate of Rs. 28 per month is granted to all workers who put in full attendance. There is also a system of paying a reward for efficient work and the amount paid varies from as. 8 to Rs. 4 per month. Owing to the liberal scale of the dearness allowance, the lowest average daily earning, namely, of colour winders, is Rs. 1-9-4, the highest being Rs. 2-5-8 in the case of double siders. Two types of bonuses, namely, quarterly and annual are also paid to the workers. A bonus at the rate of Rs. 17-0-0 for full attendance during the quarter ending 30th June 1944 was paid subject to the condition that 12 days' absence during the quarter would be excused and that proportionate deduction in the bonus would be made for absence exceeding 12 days. For the year 1942-43 the annual bonus was paid at the rate of Rs. 55 to those who were on the roll on the day of the payment of the bonus and had remained on the roll for the whole year.

(viii) *C. P. and Berar.*

(*Akola and Nagpur*).

Owing to considerable unrest in the industry, particularly in regard to the question of wages, the C.P. Government had to appoint several enquiry committees since 1934. The basic wages in the industry vary from unit to unit at Nagpur and also at Akola and, what is most striking, they also vary in the five different units of the same mill at Nagpur. In addition to wages, there is a system at Nagpur of paying different kinds of allowances such as good attendance bonus, long service attendance, night shift allowance etc. As Table 60 shows, the earnings per day of drawing tenters in Nagpur average Rs. 1-15-6 of ring doffers Rs. 1-7-8, of male ring single siders Rs. 1-13-11, of female winders Rs. 1-6-8, of female reelers Rs. 1-6-2, of one loom weavers Rs. 1-14-0, of two-loom weavers Rs. 2-6-9 and of coolies Rs. 1-10-1.

TABLE 60.

Earnings (weighted averages) of Cotton Mill Workers in Nagpur in Selected Occupations in January, 1944.

Occupation.	Sex.	Piece or Time.	Number of hours of work per shift.	Number of workers.	Average daily net earnings.
Drawing Tenter	M	P|T	9	372	1 15 6
Slubbing Tenter	M	P|T	9	70	2 0 0
Inter Tenter	M	P|T	9	122	2 0 4
Roving Tenter	M	P|T	9	166	1 15 4
Ring Doffer	M	T	9	1,426	1 7 8
Single Sider	M	T	9	2,653	1 13 11
Winder	M	P	9	281	1 6 0
Winder	F	P	9	605	1 6 8
Reeler	F	P	9	1,442	1 6 2
Weaver—One Loom	M	P|T	9	3,834	1 14 0
Weaver—Two Looms	M	P	9	1,122	2 6 9
Cooly	M	T	9	540	1 10 1
Cooly	F	T	9	7	1 10 0
				Total = 12,640	

The wage level at Akola is appreciably lower than that at Nagpur, as will be seen from the following frequency table showing the earnings at Nagpur and Akola:—

TABLE 61.

Frequency Table showing the Earnings in Nagpur and Akola in January 1944.

Percentgae of workers whose average daily net earnings were

	Re. 1/- to Rs. 1/4	1/4/- to 1/8/-	1/8/- to 1/12/-	1/12/- to 2/-	2/- to 2/4/-	2/4/- to 2/8/-	2/8/-and avove.
Nagpur	—	19.68	17.72	43.86	9.93	7.71	1.10
Akola	0.26	43.54	27.44	8.31	9.07	11.28	0.10

In the centres in the C.P., dearness allowance is linked with the cost of living index number published by the Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur. In January 1944, when the cost of living index number for Nagpur stood at 287, the allowance of a worker attending full-time amounted to Rs. 27-8-0. The mills at Nagpur and Akola paid a profit bonus for 1943-44 equal to ¼ of the total earnings of the workers. The largest unit of the industry in Nagpur pays a long service bonus at the rate of Re. 1 per month to those who have put in five years' service or more and at the rate of Rs. 2 per month to those who have put in 10 or more years of service. All the mills pay a regularity bonus of Rs. 18 per year. Both at Nagpur and at Akola, the wage period is a month.

(ix) *Indore.*

As a result of the recommendations of a Committee appointed by the State, a scheme of standardization of wages in some occupations has been introduced. Two of its provisions are that the mills paying more than the standard rate should not scale down their rates and that the mills except one should pay to two-loom weavers with an efficiency of 76 per cent, Rs. 38 per month for 26 days' work. In spite of the introduction of the scheme, however, the results of the Wage Census relating to the month of March 1944 show that there are slight variations in the basic wages in the different units at Indore. The following table gives the weighted averages of wages and earnings in the Indore mills:—

TABLE 62.

Wages and Earnings (Weighted Averages) of Cotton Mill Workers in Indore in Selected Occupations in March 1944.

Occupations	Sex.	Piece or time	Number of hours of work per shift.	Number of workers.	Average daily basic wages.	Average daily net earnings
					Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Drawing Tenter ...	M	P	10	401	1 0 4	2 8 3
Slubbing Tenter ...	M	P	10	141	1 1 0	2 8 10
Inter Tenter ...	M	P	10	249	0 15 10	2 7 8
Roving Tenter ...	M	P	10	440	0 15 2	2 7 4
Ring Warp Sider ...	M	T	10	721	0 9 11	2 1 9
Ring Weft Sider ...	M	T	10	696	0 10 2	2 2 1
Ring Tarwalla ...	M	T	10	68	0 10 3	2 1 9
Ring Doffer ...	M	T	10	1,697	0 6 8	1 14 7
Grey Winder ...	M	P	10	499	0 7 4	1 14 10
Ditto ...	M	T	10	90	0 11 4	2 1 9
Ditto ...	F	P	10	982	0 7 1	1 14 6
Colour Winder ...	M	P	10	38	0 13 2	2 4 8
Ditto ...	F	P	10	273	0 9 2	2 0 8
Universal Winder ...	M	P	10	82	0 6 7	1 14 0
Ditto ...	M	T	10	16	0 8 3	2 0 3
Ditto ...	F	P	10	109	0 6 2	1 13 10
Ditto ...	F	T	10	17	0 9 8	2 1 1
Pirn Winder ...	M	P	10	33	0 7 1	1 14 7
Ditto ...	F	P	10	54	0 7 9	2 0 1
Ditto ...	F	T	10	19	0 8 3	2 0 3
Reeler ...	M	P	10	47	0 9 7	2 1 3
Ditto ...	M	T	10	9	0 6 5	1 13 11
Ditto ...	F	P	10	508	0 6 8	1 14 3
Weaver (One Loom) ...	M	P	10	993	0 13 3	2 4 8
Weaver (Two Looms) ...	M	P	10	5,197	1 4 9	2 12 2
Cooly ...	M	T	10	1,403	0 12 0	2 3 3
Total ...				14,782		

All the mills have been paying dearness allowance since July 1940. The allowance is based on the three monthly average of the cost of living index numbers for Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur. For the quarter ending 30th September 1944 the average of the indices was 258 and, the monthly allowance amounted to Rs. 30-9-0 per worker for 26 days' attendance. A frequency of wages and earnings per day shows that 24.35 per cent of the workers have a basic wage which is under as. 8, 22.58 per cent between as. 8 and as. 12, 12.43 per cent between as. 12 and a rupee 10.86 per cent between Re. 1 and Rs. 1-4-0 and 29.78 per cent over Rs. 1-4-0. The majority of the workers in the last category are weavers. As regards earnings, only 0.49 per cent of the workers were earning between Rs. 1-8-0 and Rs. 1-12-0 per day no worker earning less than Rs. 1-8-0 per day. The percentage of those earning between Rs. 2-12-0 and Rs. 3 was 18.27. Most of the mills pay a bonus in one form or another. All the mills in Indore paid a profit bonus for the year 1943 amounting to ¼ of the aggregate basic earnings of the workers. The wage period in all the mills is the calendar month and wages are usually paid before the 10th of the succeeding month.

(x) *Baroda.*

A wage census relating to the month of March 1944 was conducted in selected important occupations in all the units. As between unit and unit there are slight differences in the basic wage rates and one unit definitely pays higher wages than the other three. The following table contains information regarding basic wages and earnings in selected occupations:—

TABLE 63.

Wages and Earnings (weighted averages) of Cotton Mill Workers in Baroda in Selected Occupations in March 1944.

Occupation.	Sex.	Piece or time	Number of hours of work.	Number of workers.	Average daily basic wages.	Average daily net earnings.
					Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Drawing Tenter ...	M	P	9,10	128	0 14 9	2 13 11
Slubbing Tenter ...	M	P	9,10	42	0 15 5	2 14 8
Inter Tenter ...	M	P	9,10	77	0 14 8	2 13 5
Roving Tenter ...	M	P	9,10	189	0 12 8	2 12 3
Mule Spinner ...	M	T	9,10	1,064	0 14 0	2 13 1
Ditto ...	F	T	9	11	0 13 5	2 12 7
Frame Doffer ...	M	T	9,10	211	0 7 6	2 6 6
Ring Doffer ...	M	T	9,10	575	0 7 5	2 6 5
Grey Winder ...	M	P	10	182	0 9 2	2 9 3
Ditto ...	F	P	9	207	0 7 8	2 6 8
Colour Winder ...	M	P	9,10	10	0 11 1	2 10 2
Ditto ...	F	P	9	82	0 11 2	2 9 2
Cheese Winder ...	M	P	10	3	0 13 9	2 12 6
Ditto ...	F	P	9	10	0 11 3	2 8 2
Reeler ...	M	P	10	10	0 7 1	2 5 10
Ditto ...	F	P	9	42	0 7 7	2 6 1
Weaver (Two looms) ...	M	P	9,10	2,201	1 6 10	3 5 7
Cooly ...	M	T	9,10	441	0 10 3	2 8 7
Total ...				5,485		

It will be seen that among the process operatives the highest paid occupation is that of two-loom weavers, their average basic wage being Rs. 1-6-10 per day and their average net earnings Rs. 3-5-7. Ring doffers get an average daily wage of 0-7-5 per day, their average daily earnings being Rs. 2-6-5. The following table shows the frequency of wages and earnings:—

TABLE 64.

Frequency Table showing Percentage of Workers in different Income Groups in Baroda Mills.

Total No. of Workers (5,485).

Income groups.	Percentage to total	
	Basic wages	Net earnings.
Under As. -|4|-	..	..
As. 4 and under As. 8	.. 19.24	..
As. 8 and under As. 12	.. 14.40	..
As. 12 and under Re. 1|-	.. 22.28	..
Re. 1|- and under Rs. 1|4|-	.. 3.87	..
Rs. 1|4|- and under Rs. 1|8|-	.. 26.72	..
Rs. 1|8|- and under Rs. 1|12|-	.. 13.49	..
Rs. 1|12 and under Rs. 2|-	.. ..	..
Rs. 2|- and under Rs. 2|4|-	.. ..	..
Rs. 2|4|- and under Rs. 2|8|-	.. ..	22.92
Rs. 2|8|- and under Rs. 2|12|-	.. ..	11.21
Rs. 2|12|- and under Rs. 3|-	.. ..	23.54
Rs. 3|- and over	.. ..	42.33
Total =	100.00	100.00

From the above table it is clear that not a single worker earns less than Rs. 2-4-0 per day. The percentage of those earning between Rs. 2-4-0 and Rs. 2-8-0 is 22.92. of those earning between Rs. 2-8-0 and Rs. 2-12-0 is 11.21, of those between Rs. 2-12-0 and under Rs. 3 is 23.54, while as many as 42.33 per cent of the total are in the earning group Rs. 3 and over. The latter are all weavers. The wage scale in Baroda is largely influenced by Ahmedabad. Since 1942 dearness allowance is being paid on a uniform basis, the rate of the allowance being 75 per cent of that paid in the Ahmedabad. The highest amount of dearness allowance paid was Rs. 57-12-6 in December 1943, while in June 1944 it amounted to Rs. 44-15-9 per month. The workers in the Baroda mills get an annual war bonus. It is paid at a certain percentage of the basic wages, this percentage being 23 in 1942 and 25 in 1943. Some mills also pay attendance and production bonus. There are different wage periods for piece and time workers. Those on piece rates are paid on a *hapta* basis, two *haptas* constituting a calendar month. Thus they receive payment twice a month, once on the 9th and again on the 24th. Time-rated workers receive wages only once a month, usually on the 9th or 10th of the month.

(xi) *Bangalore.*

There are considerable variations in the wages as between unit and unit in Bangalore. The following table shows the wages and earnings in selected occupations in the cotton mills at Bangalore during the month of January 1944:—

TABLE 65.

Wages and Earnings (weighted averages) in Selected Occupations in January 1944 in the three big Cotton Mills at Bangalore.

Occupation	Sex.	Piece or time rate	Number of hours of work per shift	Number of workers.	Average daily basic wages earned	Average daily net earnings
					Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Drawing Tenter ...	M	T	8,9	125	0 10 7	1 4 1
Slubbing Tenter ...	M	P	8,9	65	0 13 11	1 5 6
Inter Tenter ...	M	P	8.9	77	0 11 11	1 6 1
Roving Tenter ...	M	P	8,9	303	0 11 4	1 5 8
Ring Doffer ...	M	P	9	425	0 4 4	0 12 11
Slubbing Doffer ...	M	T	8	53	0 7 9	1 2 4
Roving Doffer ...	M	T	9	178	0 6 4	0 15 11
Throstle Doffer ...	M	T	9	239	0 8 0	1 2 9
Full Sider ...	M	T	9	133	0 9 7	1 3 1
Ditto ...	F	T	9	9	0 8 7	1 2 5
Half Sider ...	M	T	9	41	0 6 2	1 5 11
Two thirds Sider ...	M	T	9	130	0 7 11	1 1 6
Ditto ...	F	T	9	14	0 6 11	1 0 8
One third sider ...	M	T	9	194	0 4 11	0 4 11
Grey Winder ...	M	P	9	65	0 6 9	1 1 1
Ditto ...	F	P	9	90	0 7 2	1 0 11
Colour Winder ...	M	T	9	3	0 7 4	1 1 2
Ditto ...	F	P	9	11	0 4 5	0 15 1
Universal Winder ...	M	P	9	113	0 6 0	1 4 10
Ditto ...	F	P	9	132	0 6 4	1 0 1
Pirn Winder ...	M	P	9	227	0 15 7	1 11 9
Ditto ...	F	P	9	47	0 15 10	1 10 7
M.N.K. Winder ...	M	P	9	19	0 3 10	0 13 9
Ditto ...	F	P	9	44	0 5 5	0 15 2
Single-Loom Weaver ...	M	P	9	347	0 9 1	1 2 6
Two Loom Weaver	M	P	9	738	1 0 9	1 11 3
Three-Loom Weaver ...	M	P	9	421	1 2 9	1 13 1
Four-Loom Weaver ...	M	P	9	14	1 5 11	2 0 1
Six-Loom Weaver ...	M	P	9	187	1 6 5	2 0 1
Reeler ...	M	P	9	41	0 5 4	0 15 2
Ditto ...	F	P	9	333	0 7 5	1 1 3
Cooly ...	M	T	9	212	0 9 3	1 3 2
Total ...				5,030		

As compared to 1943, there have been slight changes in the upward direction in the basic wage rates.. The following table shows at a glance the position regarding basic wages and earnings in the cotton mills in Bangalore :—

TABLE 66.

Frequency of wages and earnings in Bangalore Cotton Mills in 1944

Basic Wages.		Net Earnings.	
Wages groups.	Percentage to total.	Wages groups.	Percentage to total.
Under as. 6 ..	17.58	Under as. 8 ..	Nil
As. 6 and under As. 10 ..	32.24	As. 8 to As. 12 ..	6.52
As. 10 and under As. 14 ..	24.37	As. 12 to Re. 1|- ..	13.68
As. 14 and under Rs. 1|2 ..	14.16	Re. 1|- to Rs. 1|4 ..	30.16
Over Rs. 1|2 ..	11.65	Rs. 1|4 to Rs. 1|8 ..	16.34
		Rs. 1|8 to Rs. 1|12 ..	20.84
		Over Rs. 1|12|- ..	12.46
..	100.00	..	100.00

At the time of the enquiry only four out of the six units were paying dearness allowance which was linked with the official cost of living index number published by the Mysore Government. There is only a slight variation in the rate of the allowance paid by the larger units. In July 1945, the Bangalore cost of living index number stood at 199 and the rate of the allowance worked out to Rs. 19-10-6 per month. The smaller units pay as dearness allowance only about half the amount paid by the larger units. Some of these concerns give an allowance of one to two annas per day to night shift workers who are also supplied with a free cup of tea. In the largest unit of the industry, half yearly bonus was given to all permanent employees at the rate of the declared dividend which in 1943 was 15% of their earnings. All permanent and temporary workers with six months' service are also paid War Savings Bonus at the rate of five per cent of their earnings and the amount is credited to their account in the Post Office Savings Bank. In the other two large units, half yearly bonus is paid only to permanent workers at 10 per cent of the actual earned wages during the six months to which the bonus relates. The smaller units do not pay any bonus. In the larger units of the industry, the wage period is the English calendar month but in the smaller concerns it is either a week or a fortnight.

(xii) *Cochin State.*

A wages census was conducted in three units in Cochin State for the month of April 1944 and the following table contains the results of the census for important selected occupations:—

TABLE 67.

Wages and Earnings (weighted averages) in April 1944 in Selected Occupations in three Cotton Mills in Cochin State.

Occupation.	Sex	Piece or time	Number of hours of work per shift.	Number of workers.	Average daily basic wages earned.	Average daily net earnings.
					Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Drawing Tenter ...	M	P	9	17	0 7 4	1 0 4
Ditto ...	F	P	5½	12	0 3 9	0 8 8
Ditto ...	M	T	9	23	0 5 10	0 10 1
Slubbing Tenter ...	M	P	9	19	0 8 4	0 15 11
Inter Tenter ...	M	P	9	27	0 8 11	1 0 9
Roving Doffer ...	M	P	9	80	0 8 5	0 15 10
Ditto ...	M	T	9	66	0 4 6	0 7 7
Ditto ...	C	T	9	38	0 2 5	0 5 8
Full Siders ...	M	T	9	249	0 6 9	0 12 3
Ditto ...	F	T	9	33	0 5 3	0 12 6
¾ Sider ...	M	T	9	163	0 4 8	0 8 4

TABLE 67 (Contd)-

¾ Sider	...	F	T	9	34	0	4	7	0	8	3
⅔ Sider	...	M	T	9	63	0	3	4	0	8	0
Ditto	...	F	T	9	16	0	3	4	0	7	6
½ Sider	...	M	T	9	147	0	3	1	0	5	8
Ditto	...	F	T	9	50	0	2	10	0	5	5
Tarwalla	...	M	T	9	56	0	8	3	0	14	2
Ring Doffer	...	M	T	9	224	0	2	6	0	4	6
Ditto	...	F	T	9	72	0	1	10	0	3	4
Grey Winder	...	F	P	9	166	0	3	6	0	7	5
Colour Winder	...	F	P	9	16	0	3	7	0	7	7
Reeler	...	F	P	9	373	0	4	3	0	7	7
Single Loom Weaver	...	F	P	8	232	0	5	0	0	10	8
Ditto	...	M	P	8	474	0	6	2	0	13	1
Two Loom Weaver	...	M	P	8	269	0	10	1	1	5	3
Cooly	...	M	T	9	16	0	7	2	0	10	1
Ditto	...	F	T	9	63	0	4	2	0	5	9
Total	...				3,078						

It will be seen from the table that in no case does the average basic wage of a tenter exceed Rs. 0-8-11 and is Rs. 0-5-10 per day in the case of drawing tenters on time-rates. Women drawing tenters have an average basic wage of as. 3-9 only. The average daily wage of a single loom weaver is as. 5 only in the case of women and as. 0-6-2 in the case of men. Two loom weavers get on an average as. 0-10-1 per day. A peculiarity in Cochin is that women are employed both in the ring, spinning and the weaving departments. In Trichur, dearness allowance was paid at the time of the enquiry at the rate of 120 per cent of the basic wages. In Pudukad, on the other hand, the rate of the allowance was 100 per cent of the basic wages. The mill at Trichur paid a bonus at the rate of two months' basic wages for 1943 and 1944. On the other hand, an annual prosperity bonus of 3½ months' wages, including dearness allowance, was paid in Pudukad for the same years. In addition to the extremely low level of wages in the Cochin State, one of the mills was not working to full capacity on account of shortage of power, and for part of the day the machinery had to be kept idle. This affected the earnings of the workers.

TABLE 68.

Frequency Table showing Average Daily Basic Wages of Workers in Cotton Mills Surveyed in India (excluding Bombay Province) in 1944.

Name of centres.	Percentage to total :													Total No. of workers
	Under -/4/-	-/4/- & under -/6/-	-/6/- & under -/8/-	-/8/- & under -/10/-	-/10/- & under -/12/-	-/12/- & under -/14/-	-/14/- & under Re. 1/-	1/- & under 1/2	1/2 & under 1/4	1/4 & under 1/8	1/8 & under 1/12	1/12 & under 2/-	2/- & above.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
BRITISH INDIA.														
South India :—														
Madras ...	...	...	...	3.72	7.92	57.44	2.74	4.17	2.65	9.91	3.49	6.72	1.24	6,455
Coimbatore ...	1.05	32.14	34.83	19.33	9.47	1.29	1.87	0.02	...	...	...	...	...	22,799
Madura ...	2.07	7.93	43.88	34.72	10.21	1.19	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14,609
Ramnad ...	...	16.69	47.14	31.59	4.58	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	611
Ambasumadram	...	...	79.22	14.00	6.78	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4,928
Tinnevelly ...	...	8.07	32.09	24.72	9.18	15.04	...	10.90	...	...	...	...	...	991
Gudiatham ...	11.53	16.07	55.39	12.10	4.91	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	529
Salem	24.28	44.36	30.05	1.31	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	762
Trichinopolly ...	9.51	26.99	37.07	26.43	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	526
BENGAL ...	...	5.42	7.07	31.02	15.62	11.11	3.30	23.44	1.55	0.98	0.49	...	...	8,306
U.P.: Cawnpore ...	0.10	1.35	5.09	13.39	11.43	11.83	7.01	7.22	5.14	21.80	13.89	1.21	0.04	21,992
C.P.: Nagpur ...	4.42	5.61	12.84	15.01	19.39	29.13	4.70	3.56	0.43	3.08	1.60	0.23	...	13,474
Akola ...	...	2.00	23.54	23.38	13.49	9.69	6.11	1.64	0.92	19.13	0.10	...	...	1,950
DELHI : Delhi ...	...	0.41	5.45	18.31	14.07	11.97	7.56	3.39	3.98	3.89	11.83	10.73	8.41	7,837
PUNJAB : Lahore ...	...	0.78	10.45	11.91	25.78	11.43	11.62	2.15	8.01	5.37	12.50	...	...	1,024
Lyallpur ...	...	...	5.80	23.01	7.90	22.33	2.32	1.20	0.04	37.40	...	...	...	2,329
INDIAN STATES														
Indore ...	...	2.73	21.62	6.89	15.69	8.66	3.77	6.56	4.30	28.04	1.74	...	...	14,782
Baroda ...	...	0.22	19.02	5.89	8.51	20.97	1.31	3.12	0.75	26.72	13.49	...	...	5,485
Mysore ...	0.87	19.24	28.35	14.45	7.81	7.48	6.84	6.92	5.76	0.19	2.09	...	...	7,313
Cochin	33.98	20.79	32.13	4.00	9.03	0.07	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3,078
Travancore ...	5.16	39.23	54.05	0.64	0.22	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,086
Pudukota ...	...	46.3	42.86	6.41	2.91	1.46	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	343
Total ...														1,41,209

II—Jute Mills.

The discussion of the wage position in the Indian jute mill industry is fraught with special difficulty in view of the paucity of information on the subject, the multiplicity of occupations in the industry and the absence of any standardisation scheme. As the Royal Commission pointed out, "the jute industry has been more fortunate than the cotton mill industry as regards the prevalence of industrial unrest and the repurcussion of political factors upon stability. As a result, it has escaped a series of investigations by statutory and other bodies to which its sister industry has been subjected in the last few years".[1] Thus no information regarding wages or earnings in the industry, either collected by an official or non-official agency, is available to the public. A Wage Census was, therefore, conducted, in this industry. The information was collected for all workers in the sampled mills numbering 35 in Bengal, 2 in Cawnpore and 2 in South India. The wage period selected was a week in January 1944 in most cases in Bengal, a fortnight in March 1945 in Cawnpore, and the month of January 1944 in South Indian Centres. The wage structure of the Jute Mill Industry has undergone no radical alteration in recent years although, soon after the outbreak of the war, the Jute Mills Association, Bengal, sanctioned an increase of 10 per cent in the wages of the workers employed in mills affiliated to the Association.

(i) *Bengal.*

About 60 per cent of the workers in Jute Mills are time-rated and the rest piece-rated. The time-rate is calculated on an hourly basis and the piece-rate according to a fixed unit of work. According to the replies received from the Indian Jute Mills Association, "no scientific principles were adopted in the fixation of wages, the only determinant being the excess of supply over demand of workers which has had an important influence on wages throughout the career of the industry up to the outbreak of the present War". Table 69 shows the average weekly basic wages in 21 selected occupations in the jute mills in Bengal covered by our Wage Census.

[1] Report, p. 245.

TABLE 69.

Frequency table showing Average Weekly Basic Wages in selected occupations in Jute Mills in Bengal covered by the Wages Census in 1944.

Occupation.	Number of workers whose average weekly basic wages (excluding allowances) were															
	Below 2/8	2/8 & under 3/-	3/- & under 3/8	3/8 & under 4/-	4/- & under 4/8	4/8 & under 5/-	5/- & under 5/8	5/8 & under 6/-	6/- & under 6/8	6/8 & under 7/-	7/- & under 7/8	7/8 & under 8/-	8/- & under 8/8	8/8 & under 9/-	9/- & over	Total
Jute Selectors	...	...	...	45	57	241	113	115	97	107	10	11	...	...	...	2	789
Jute Cutters	...	...	31	355	363	601	82	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,432
Softener feeders and Receivers	...	28	187	631	350	128	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,324
Teaser Feeders and Receivers	...	12	121	316	77	40	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	566
Breaker Feeders and Receivers	...	48	714	1,454	294	134		...		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2,644
Finisher feeders and Receivers	...	94	404	488	73	16	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,078
Drawing Feeders and Receivers	...	104	1556	1,646	88	105	27	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3,526
Roving Feeders	...	44	429	806	189	...	75	10	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,553
Rovers	...	...	14	99	245	415	225	27	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,025
Roving Shifters	...	18	77	267	757	199	171	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,489
Hessian Spinners	...	...	...	...	590	1,530	2,933	937	252	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6,242
Sacking Spinners	...	...	...	33	174	931	1,263	603	170	93	...	...	...	...	...	...	3,267
Spinning Shifters	...	...	289	1,096	2,472	1,108	502	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5,467
Cop Winders	...	...	42	47	199	1,275	956	259	794	...	4	...	...	186	...	...	3,762
Wap Winders	...	94	256	359	956	960	355	117	88	184	122	165	...	...	...	...	3,656
Beamers	...	...	4	26	11	151	32	168	379	457	437	189	160	50	129	...	2,193
Hessian Weavers	...	...	...	250	187	1,003	157	353	3,318	3,795	4,556	...	1,319	...	1,029	1,571	17,538
Sacking Weavers	...	...	...	116	...	312	486	...	374	1,087	3,073	1,016	1,667	374	547	710	9,762
Hammers	...	131	...	50	...	170	299	221	188	691	12	139	192	131	16	258	2,498
Hand Sewers	...	743	631	386	529	193	322	123	94		...	...	...	...	...	...	3,021
Coolies	...	76	72	2,526	6,937	1,823	980	...	...	539	...	...	...	...	...	...	12,953
Total	...	1,392	4,827	10,996	14,548	11,335	8,981	2,933	5,754	6,953	8,214	1,520	3,338	741	1,721	2,541	85,794
Percentage to Tota	...	1.62	5.63	12.82	16.96	13.20	10.47	3.43	6.71	8.10	9.57	1.77	3.89	.86	2.01	2.96	100.

It will be seen from Table 69 that weavers (Hessian and Sacking) form the single largest body of workers in jute mills, and form 31.8 per cent of the total. In the census, no weaver was returned whose basic wage was less than Rs. 3 per week and, in fact, 90.8 per cent of them or 28.9 per cent of the total earned as wages Rs. 5 per week or more. As many as 8.25 per cent earned Rs. 9 and over as wages.

The next single largest body of workers is of spinner, hessian and sacking, and forms 11.09 per cent of the total. Of these, nearly 44.2 per cent were found in the basic wage group of Rs. 4-8-0 to Rs. 5 per week, the next largest proportion of them being in the wage group of Rs. 4 to Rs. 4-8-0 per week. None of the hessian spinners and only 93 of the sacking spinners had a weekly wage exceeding Rs. 6 per week.

Spinning shifters who numbered 5,467 or 6.4 per cent of the total is another numerically important group of workers. A large proportion of them or 85.4 per cent of the total are to be found in the wage groups, Rs. 3 to Rs. 4|8|- per week. The lowest basic wage of a shifter seems to lie in the category, Rs. 2|8|- to Rs. 3 per week, as many as 289 having been returned in this category. Winders — cop and warp — numbered 7,418 or 8.6 per cent of the total number covered. The variations in the wages of winders appear to be greater than in the case of most of the other occupations, with the exception perhaps of beamers, weavers, and jute selectors. Even so, the largest concentration of winders appears to be in the wage groups, Rs. 3-8-0 to Rs. 4-, Rs. 4 to Rs. 4|8|-, and Rs. 4|8|- to Rs. 5 per week, accounting for 81 per cent of total.

The Wage Census returned information for nearly 12,500 coolies, whose wages varied from Rs. 2|8|- to Rs. 5 per week. There were only 2,539 coolies under the wage category, Rs. 6 to Rs. 6|8|- per week.

So far as Softener Feeders and Receivers, Teaser Feeders and Receivers and Breaker Feeders and Receivers are concerned, none of them seems to have a basic wage rate of more than Rs. 4|8|- per week and, as a matter of fact, a large percentage or 68.8 per cent of the total seems to fall within the wage category Rs. 3 to Rs. 3|8|- and Rs. 3|8|- to Rs. 4.

Taking all the workers in the selected occupations, it will be seen that the basic wages per week of below 20.07 per cent lie within the wage groups Rs. 2|8|- to Rs. 3|8|- of 40.63 per cent in the wage groups Rs. 3|8|- to Rs. 5 of 33.47 per cent in the wage groups Rs. 5 to Rs. 8 and of 5.83 per cent within the wage group of Rs. 8 and Rs. 9 and over. A rough estimate of the average basic wage in the industry in Bengal would be about Rs. 5 per week.

The net earnings of workers in selected occupations are shown in Table 70. These earnings include all allowances, such as amenity allowance, production bonus, overtime pay, A.R.P. allowance, etc. The figures, however, do not take into consideration the factor of absenteeism. The figures are self-explanatory and require little comment. It might also be pointed out that at the time of the Census, the amenity allowance amounted to Rs. 1|4|- per week, while, at present, it is Rs. 2 per week. So far as is known, there have been no other changes in the allowances, either in the upward or downward direction. The figures in the table should, therefore, be read in the light of the fact that

TABLE 70.

Frequency table showing the average Weekly Net Earnings in selected occupations in the Jute Mills in Bengal covered by Wages Census in 1944.

Occupations.	Number of workers whose average weekly net earnings were														
	Below Rs. 4	4/- & under 4/8	4 8 & under 5/-	5/- & under 5/8	5/8 & under 6/-	6/- & under 6/8	6/8 & under 7/-	7/- & under 7/8	7/8 & under 8/-	8/- & under 8/8	8/8 & under 9/-	9/- & under 9 8	9/8 & under 10	10 & over.	Total
Jute Selectors ...	...	...	45	103	68	222	106	112	67	52	...	21	...	2	798
Jute Cutters ...	...	40	90	279	835	188	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,423
Softener Feeders and Receivers ...	16	82	596	282	187	161	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,324
Teaser Feeders and Receivers ...	7	42	210	220	55	32	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	566
Breaker Feeders and Receivers ...	17	402	1,305	659	250	11	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.644
Finisher Feeders and Receivers ...	2	440	453	80	56	47	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		1078
Drawing Feeders and Receivers ...	52	1,291	1,712	251	193	27	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3,526
Roving Feeders ...	32	247	632	499	58	65	...	20	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,553
Rovers ...	...	7	22	216	292	317	126	45	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,025
Roving Shifters ...	...	14	175	590	324	340	...	146	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,489
Hessian Spinners ...	...	...	...	22	505	2,632	1,635	992	90	178	188	...	...	...	6,242
Sacking Spinners ...		...	...	90	322	1,228	517	804	213	93	...	...	...	...	3,267
Spinning Shifters ...	...	...	399	2,076	2,076	777	...	139	...	...	...	...	...	...	5,467
Cop Winders ...	...	42	...	261	906	721	766	256	160	464	...	...	186	...	3,762
Warp Winders ...	186	27	535	856	984	463	46	...	29	304	103	123	...	...	3,656
Beamers ...	...	...	...	84	66	66	110	183	396	339	533	156	116	144	2,193
Hessian Weavers ...	...	...	289	148	24	869	1,483	2,146	4,424	1,414	1,419	1,562	1,160	2,600	17,538
Sacking Weavers ...	...	116	...	...	306	...	219	613	344	3,606	732	1,966	321	1,539	9,762
Hammers ...	50	...	131	...	416	126	206	129	386	329	105	281	35	304	2,498
Hand Sewers ...	749	708	268	564	193	...	116	100	...	...	...	...	...	...	3,021
Coolies ...	25	908	1,505	2,189	6,390	598	416	377	539	...	...	...	...	6	12,953
Total ...	1,136	4,366	8,367	9,469	14,506	9,112	5,746	6,062	6,649	6,779	3,080	4,109	1,818	4,595	85,795
percentage to total	1.32	5.09	9.74	11.04	16.91	10.62	6.70	7.07	7.75	7.90	3.59	4.79	2.12	5.36	100

the earnings shown above would be higher today to the extent of the increase in the amenity allowance. It will be seen from the table that 1.32 per cent of the workers are in the earning category below Rs. 4; 14.83 per cent in the earning category Rs. 4 and below Rs. 5; 52.34 per cent in the category Rs. 5 and below Rs. 7-8-0; 19.24 per cent in the earning category Rs. 7-8-0 and below Rs. 9; and the remainder (12.27 per cent) in the categories Rs. 9 and above. It is of interest to note that none of the Jute Cutters, Softener Feeders and Receivers, Teaser Feeder and Receivers, Breaker Feeders and Receivers, Finisher Feeders and Receivers and Drawing Feeders and Receivers earns more than Rs. 6|8|- per week. Among the weavers, 4,139 or 15.1 per cent of the total earn Rs. 10 and over. The earnings of the bulk of the coolies or 77.7 per cent of the total lie within the earning groups Rs. 4|8|- to Rs. 6, nearly half the coolies being in the earnings category Rs. 5|8|- to Rs. 6 per week. A large concentration of them is to be found in the earning groups Rs. 6 and under Rs. 7|8|- per week.

As pointed out already, there are large variations in the basic wages of cop winders and, therefore, in their earnings as well. Cop winders appear to be in receipt of a slightly higher earning than warp winders. However, taking winders as a whole, their earnings seem to lie within the earning groups Rs. 5 and under Rs. 7, the largest concentration being in the earning group Rs. 5|8|- to Rs. 6 per week.

No dearness allowance as such is being paid by the jute mill industry in Bengal, but an allowance known as "amenity allowance" linked to attendance is paid instead. At first, namely, in June 1941, the rate of this allowance was annas four per month. This has been increased, from time to time, and since December 4, 1944, stands at Rs. 2 per week. In addition to cash allowance, the mills issue foodstuffs from the Mills' ration shops at concession rates. Different mills, however, charge different rates for the commodities supplied. Judging from a sample of 29 mills, it seems that the maximum loss to the mills per head per week is Rs. 1-10-3 and the minimum Rs. 0-13-6, the average being Rs. 1-4-4. According to the Jute Mills Association, however, the average subsidy paid by the mills on account of the supply of foodstuffs is Rs. 1-9-0 per worker per week.

(ii) *Cawnpore.*

The following tables show the frequency of daily basic wages and earnings and the frequency of earning groups in the two sampled units at Cawnpore.

TABLE 71.

Wages and Earnings in selected Occupations in the Second Fortnight of March 1945 in the Jute Mills in Cawnpore covered by the Wage Census.

Occupation.	Sex.	Piece or Time (P or T)	No. of hours of work per shift.	No. of workers.	Average daily basic wages earned.	Average daily gross earnings including overtime allowances and bonuses.	Average daily net earnings including overtime, allowances and bonuses.
					Rs. as. p.	Rs. as. p.	Rs. as. p.
Jute Assorters ...	Males	P	9 hours	43	1 1 2	1 11 11	1 11 11
Cutters ...	M	T	"	111	0 8 9	1 3 6	1 3, 6
Softener feeders and Receiver...	M	T	"	76	0 8 4	1 3 2	1 3 2
Teaserman ...	M	T	"	30	0 9 2	1 3 11	1 3 11
Breaker feeder and Receivers...	M	T	"	65	0 7 3	1 2 0	1 2 0
Ditto ...	F	T	"	51	0 7 3	1 2 0	1 2 0
Finishing feeders and Receivers...	M	T	"	92	0 7 0	1 1 10	1 1 10
Ditto ...	F	T	"	29	0 7 0	1 1 9	1 1 9
Drawing feeders and Receivers...	M	T	"	222	0 7 0	1 1 9	1 1 9
Ditto ...	F	T	"	50	0 6 9	1 1 6	1 1 6
Roving feeders	M	T	"	21	0 6 9	1 1 6	1 1 6
Ditto ...	M	P	"	62	0 9 3	1 4 0	1 4 0
Ditto ...	F	P	"	25	0 8 11	1 3 8	1 3 8
Rovers ...	M	P	"	62	0 12 10	1 7 7	1 7 7
Ditto ...	M	T	"	5	0 10 7	1 5 6	1 5 6
Roving shifters	M	T	"	138	0 6 9	1 1 7	1 1 7
Spinners ...	M	T	"	790	0 11 0	1 6 0	1 6 0
Spinning Shifters	M	T	"	601	0 6 8	1 1 7	1 1 7
Roll Winders ...	M	P	"	394	0 9 4	1 4 1	1 4 1
Cop Winders	M	P	"	375	0 10 1	1 4 11	1 4 11
Weavers ...	M	P	"	1,466	1 0 0	1 10 8	1 10 8
Hammers ...	M	P	"	251	0 13 8	1 8 6	1 8 6
Hand Sewe ...	M	P	"	155	0 7 10	1 2 7	1 2 7
Hand Sewers ...	F	P	"	121	0 6 11	1 1 8	1 1 8
Beamers ...	M	T	"	43	1 3 7	1 14 5	1 14 5
Coolie ...	M	T	"	249	0 7 7	1 2 5	1 2 5
Ditto ...	M	P	"	249	0 6 8	1 1 5	1 1 5
Total ...				5,776			

TABLE 72.

Frequency Table showing the Number of Workers in Selected Occupations in the Daily Basic Wage and Earnings Groups in the Jute Mills in Cawnpore covered by the Wage Census (March 1945).

Occupation.	Number of workers in the daily basic wage groups									Number of workers in the daily net earnings groups.					
	under As. 4	As. 4 & under as. 6	As. 6 & under as. 8	As. 8 & under as. 10	As. 10 & under as. 12	As. 12 & under as. 14	As. 14 & under Re. 1	Re. 1 & under 1/2	1/2 & under 1/4	under Re. 1	1/- & under 1/4	1/4- & under 1/8	1/8 & under 1/12	1/12 & under Rs. 2	2/- & over
Jute Selectors ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	43	...	...	...	...	43	...	...
Cutters ...	...	...	...	111	...	...	...	...	...	...	111		...	...	...
Softener Feeders and Receiners ...	...	...	28	48	...	...	...	...	...		76	...	...	...	...
Teasermen ...	...	...	...	30	...	...	...	...	...	...	30	...	...	...	...
Breaker feeders and Receivers ...	...	...	116	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	116		...	...	...
Finisher feeders and Receivers ...	...	...	121	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	121	...	...	...	...
Drawing feeders and Receivers ...	...	...	272	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	272	...	...	...	...
Roving Feeders ...	...	...	21	87	...	...	...	...	...	...	21	87	...	...	...
Rovers ...	...	...	...	...	49	...	18	...	...	...	...	49	18	...	...
Roving Shifters ...	...	...	138		...	...	...	...	...	...	138	...	...	...	...
Spinners ...	...	...	...	...	790	...	...	...	...	...	...	700	...	...	...
Spinning Shifters ...	...	...	601	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	601	...	...	...	...
Cop Winders ...	...	...	...	...	375	...	...	...	...	...	...	375	...	...	...
Warp Roll Winders	...	...	...	394	...	...	...	...	...	...	74	320	...	...	...
Beamers ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	43	...	...	...	...	43	...
Weavers ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,163	303	...	...	...	...	1,466	...	...
Machine Sewers ...	...	...	...	...	...	218	...	...	33	...	...	218	...	33	...
Hand Sewers ...	...	15	216	45	...	...	...	...	...	...	276	...	...	...	...
Coolies ...	...	...	305	193	...	...	...	...	...	...	498	...	...	...	...
Total	...	15	1,818	908	1,214	218	1,181	346	76	...	2,334	1,839	1,527	76	...
Percentage to total	...	0.26	31.47	15.72	21.02	3.77	20.45	5.99	1.32	...	40.41	31.84	26.44	1.31	...

It will be seen that 31.73% of the workers are in receipt of a basic daily wage of less than as. 8, 36.74% fall in the wage group between as 8 and as. 12 per day, 24.22% are in the group between as. 12 and Re. 1 per day and 7.31% receive a basic wage of Re. 1 and over. While the basic wage rates in the mills at Cawnpore appear to be lower than those in Bengal, the earnings are much higher because the mills at Cawnpore pay dearness allowance on the scale adopted by the Employers' Association of Northern India, the quantum of which is nearly three times the one given by the mills in Bengal. For instance, while the mills in Bengal pay an amenity allowance of Rs. 2 per week, the amount payable by way of dearness allowance in Cawnpore was Rs. 23-7-0 for the month of January 1945. The Cawnpore mills also pay a regular attendance bonus of as. 7 to spinners and as. 2 to doffers per fortnight. As regards daily earnings, it is seen that 40.41% earn Re. 1 to Rs. 1-4-0, 31.84% earn Rs. 1-4-0 to Rs. 1-8-0, 26.44% earn Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 1-12-0 and only 1.31% earn Rs. 1-12-0 to Rs. 2.

(iii) *South India.*

The following frequency table shows the average daily basic wages and earning in the month of January 1944 in selected occupations in four Jute Mills in the Province of Madras:—

TABLE 73.

Frequency Table showing the Number of Workers in Selected Occupations in the Daily Basic Wage and Daily Net earning Groups in the Jute Mills in Madras Presidency covered by the Wage Census in January 1944.

Occupation.	Number of workers in the daily basic wage groups									Number of workers in the daily earning groups					
	under As. 4	As. 4 & under As. 6	As. 6 & under As. 8	As. 8 & under As. 10	As. 10 & under As. 12	As. 12 & under As. 14	As. 14 & under Re. 1	1/- & under 1/2		under As. 8	As. 8 & under As. 12	As. 12 & under Re. 1	Re. 1 & under 1/4/-	1/4 & under 1/8/-	1/8/- & ove
Jute Selectors ...	...	13	23	...	24	...	...	...		21	15	19	5	...	...
Jute Cutters ...	...	19	30	67	...	...	...	...		19	30	67	...	...	...
Softener feeder and Receivers ...	...	11	4	61	...	...	...	...		11	4	61	...	...	...
Teaser feeders and Receivers ...	...	6	13	4	...	...	...	...		6	13	4	...	...	...
Breaker feeders and Receivers ...	...	8	226	...	...	...	...	...		8	212	14	...	...	...
Finisher feeders and Receivers ...	...	5	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	5	...	...	...	...
Drawing feeders and Receivers ...	...	12	212	...	...	...	...	...		12	212	...	...	...	...
Roving feeders ...	...	121	28	35	...	...	...	...		121	28	35	...	...	
Rovers ...	...	...	12	34	56	...	...	...		12	34	56	...	...	...
Roving Shifters ...	...	15	91	...	...	...	...	...		19	87	...	...	...	...
Spinners ...	...	...	...	127	128	468	...	...		...	255	468	...	...	...
Spinning Shifters ...	...	123	371	...	...	...	...	...		123	371	...	...	...	...
Cop Winders ...	...	...	17	24	100	...	43	...		...	41	100	43	...	...
Warp winders ...	...	...	72	76	11	...	...	...		32	40	87	...	...	...
Beamers ...	...	...	...	17	...	89	...	...		...	17	...	89	...	...
Weavers ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	227	813		...	...	110	117	813	...
Machine sewers ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	16	...		...	...	16	...	...	...
Hand sewers ...	...	87	...	...	...	...	...	...		87	...	...	...	...	...
Coolies ...	...	93	101	331	...	...	...	...		186	8	331	...	...	...
Total	...	513	1,200	776	319	557	286	813		657	1,372	1,368	254	813	...
Percentage to Total	...	11.49	26.88	17.38	7.15	12.48	6.41	18.21		14.72	30.73	30.65	5.69	18.21	...

Like mills in Bengal those in South India granted an increase of 10% in the basic wages in the year 1939. It will be seen from Table 73 that so far as daily basic wages are concerned, 38.37% are in receipt of less than as. 8; 24.53% receive between as. 8 and as. 12; 18.89% between as. 12 and Re. 1; and 18.21% above Re. 1. The scale of dearness allowance in South Indian mills is the same as in Bengal, namely Rs. 2 per week. The above table shows that 45.45% of the workers earn less than as. 12 per day, 36.34% receive between as. 12 and Re. 1-4-0 while 18.21% earn Rs. 1-4-0 to Rs. 1-8-0.

The following table compares the basic wages and earnings in three centres of the industry, namely, Bengal, Cawnpore and Madras:—

TABLE 74.

Comparison of Wages and Earnings in Bengal, Cawnpore and Madras.

Centres	Under 8 as.		8as. to 12 as.		12 as. to 1/-		1/- to 1/4		1 4 to 1/8		1/8 to and above.	
	Percentage of workers to total.		Percentage of workers to total.		Percentage of workers to total.		Percentage of workers to total.		Percentage of workers to total		Percentage of workers to total	
	B.W.	N.E.	B.W.	N.E.	B.W.	N.E.	B.W.	N.E.	B.W.	N.E.	B.W.	N.E.
Bengal ...	7.2	...	43.0	6.41	20.7	37.69	19.4	24.39	6.7	19.24	3.0	12.27
Cawnpore	31.73	...	36.74	...	24.22	...	7.31	40.41	...	31.84	...	27.75
Madras Province	38.37	14.72	24.53	30.73	18.83	30.65	18.21	5.69	...	18.21	...	...

B.W. = Basic Wage; N.E. = Net Earnings.

The table is self-explanatory and it is clear that basic wages are the highest in Bengal, while earnings are the highest in Cawnpore. Excepting Cawnpore, there is no evidence as to the basis on which dearness allowance is being granted in the jute mills in Bengal and South India. From such estimates as can be made of the present level of retail prices ruling in and around Calcutta, cost of living is at least 200 per cent higher than during the pre-war period. With amenity or dearness allowance of Rs. 2 per week and a grain concession amounting to Rs. 1-1-9 per week, the increase in the earnings does not amount even to 100 per cent of the basic wage. It is thus clear that the jute mill worker, particularly in Bengal, is very much worse off as compared to the pre-war period in view of the rise in the cost of living. Unlike most organised industries in the country, the jute mills in India except those at Cawnpore pay no profit bonus. The mills at Cawnpore, however, being members of the Employers' Association of Northern India, paid the bonus for the year 1944 amounting to two months' basic wages. While in Bengal the wage period is a week, in Cawnpore it is a fortnight. In the South Indian Mills the wage period is a month and the wages are paid within ten days of their becoming due.

III—*SILK.*

The wage position in the silk industry, particularly in the silk filatures, can only be regarded as being dismal. The basic wage rates in some centres for certain occupations, such as reelers, are as low as annas five per day. In a factory in Bengal, a weaver was getting only as. 7 per day as basic wages and his total earnings for 22 working days amounted to not more than Rs. 10-15-0. In the silk industry in Kashmir, the

wage rates are higher than those prevailing in South India, although in the largest unit in Kashmir, the worker is not sure of full employment in the month. The difference in the wage rates between Kashmir and South India can be accounted for by the fact that while the bulk of the workers in South India are women, those in Kashmir are men. The existing wage level probably explains the large percentage of absenteeism which prevails in the industry. In one centre, it was openly stated by the management that the workers found it more remunerative to work on the roads than to work in a silk manufacturing concern. Out of the 38 establishments covered by the enquiry 32 paid dearness allowance at varying rates. Except in Bombay City, in none of the other centres is the dearness allowance paid in this industry at all commensurate with the rise in prices. The establishments in Mysore pay Rs. 8 per month to adults and Rs. 5 to half-time workers. In Kashmir, 50 per cent of the earned wages are paid by way of dearness allowance. In Bengal, the rate varies from as. 1½ to as. 5½ per rupee of the total earnings while in Bomay, where the allowance is linked to the official cost of living index number, it amounted at the time of the enquiry to about 13 annas 6 pies per day. The wage period is a month in Kashmir, Mysore and Bombay. In Madras, it is a fortnight. In Bengal, it varies from concern to concern. The silk filatures pay daily, while the Silk factories pay weekly, fornightly and monthly.

IV—*WOOLLEN MILLS.*

In many of the units of the industry, basic wages have been increased by more than 25 per cent since the outbreak of the war. The rates of dearness allowance vary considerably from centre to centre and the extreme limits are about Rs. 30 per month in Bombay and Rs. 10 per month in Kashmir. The wage level is the highest in Bombay with about 70 per cent of the workers being in the daily wage groups as. 12 to Rs. 1-4-0. The level of wages in the factory at Kashmir is the lowest in the country where nearly 70 per cent of the workers get a daily wage of annas six to annas eight a day. Nearly 60 per cent of the workers in Amritsar are in receipt of a daily wage of annas 12 to annas 14, and about 68 per cent of the workers in Dhariwal receive a basic wage varying from Re. 0-9-5 to Rs. 1-2-0. In Mysore, nearly 48 per cent of the workers receive a daily wage of less than As. 10, as many as 40.29 per cent being in the wage group As. 8 to As. 10. Owing to the comparatively high rate of dearness allowance prevailing in Bombay city, no worker receives less than a rupee per day and nearly 90 per cent get more than Rs. 1|6|- per day. In Cawnpore, also, owing to the high rate of dearness allowance, nearly 84 per cent of the workers earn more than Rs. 1-8-0 per day. In Mysore, the largest unit pays a dearness allowance of Rs. 15 per month and this has considerably improved the earning position of the workers with the result that nearly 42 per cent are to be found in the earning group Rs. 1-6-0 to Rs. 1-8-0 per day. In Kashmir, not only are the basic wages the lowest in the country, but so are the earnings and nearly a quarter of the workers have an earning of less than As. 6 per day and other quarter between annas 10 and annas 12 per day. The larger units of the industry in Bombay, Cawnpore and Bangalore have been paying a profit bonus varying from one-sixth to one-fourth of the earnings exclusive of dearness allowance. The largest unit in Mysore was paying a profit bonus even before the War and has a regular system of

linking it with the dividends declared. The wage period is a month in Bombay, Dhariwal, Mysore and Kashmir, while in Amritsar it varies from factory to factory, being a month in some cases and a fornight in others. The wage period in Cawnpore is a fortnight.

V—*ENGINEERING INDUSTRY.*

We may now deal with the wage position in the engineering industry. This can be conveniently done for different sections. There is hardly any uniformity of wage standards in the various sections of the industry and no general statements or statisical averages are possible, It is, therefore, necessary to take each section separately. The following important sections are dealt with: (i) General Engineering, (ii) Electrical Engineering, (iii) Railway Workshops and (iv) Kerosene Tinning and Packing, (v) Dockyards.

i. *General Engineering.*

Madras.—The rates of wages have remained the same since 1939 in public concerns and some private concerns and dearness allowance is paid to compensate the workers for the rise in the cost of living. A few concerns have changed the wage-rates, the largest increase being in the wages of Grade II carpenters and moulders whose wage rates have gone up by over 200%. The cases of large increases are mostly found in those concerns and those categories in which workers were very much underpaid before the war and where rates had to be raised if men were to be retained. The following table gives details of maximum, minimum and average daily earnings of the principal categories of workers in the selected concerns who have worked for the same number of days in the month of January 1944. Some of the categories may overlap to a certain extent because there is no uniformity in classifying workers in the different concerns; for example, some concerns include rivetters among blacksmiths, others include patternmakers among carpenters and in some cases several categories are put under the general term "machinemen". There is also some difficulty due to the same category being called by different names as coolies, helpers, attendants, boys etc.

TABLE 75.

Wages and Earnings in Madras in January 1944.

Occupation.	Number of Units covered	Daily Basic wages earned in rupees.			Monthly Net earnings.			Average daily earnings.
		Maximum.	Minimum.	Average	Maximum.	Minimum.	Average.	
		Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Blacksmiths	8	1 9 0	0 14 0	1 2 11	55 15 6	22 8 0	31 4 11	1 7 8
Carpenters	7	3 8 0	0 6 0	1 6 1	58 11 0	31 3 0	36 4 0	1 11 7
Coolies	7	0 15 0	0 6 0	0 10 4	35 8 0	7 11 0	18 7 2	0 14 9
Cleaners	3	1 4 0	0 9 6	1 0 0	27 14 6	17 4 9	23 12 9	1 2 4
Drillers	3	1 8 0	0 10 0	1 1 2	34 8 0	22 8 11	25 1 4	1 4 7
Electricians	1	—	—	1 5 6	—	—	54 2 9	2 4 1
Fitters	9	2 2 0	0 8 0	1 4 6	59 13 6	17 6 0	33 15 2	1 8 6
Firemen & Furnacemen	2	1 4 0	0 14 6	1 1 3	32 15 3	32 1 0	32 8 2	1 7 3
Hammermen ...	5	1 2 0	0 12 0	0 14 0	33 10 6	25 4 10	30 13 11	1 5 10
Machinemen & Turner ...	9	2 2 0	0 6 0	1 5 6	74 7 3	19 11 0	37 9 3	1 11 5
Mistries	4	2 10 0	1 0 0	1 13 9	60 6 0	32 14 1	50 13 11	2 5 4
Markers	3	1 15 0	1 0 0	1 5 4	54 12 4	32 14 1	45 14 0	2 0 6
Moulders	7	2 0 0	0 10 0	1 4 6	51 0 0	16 8 0	30 13 0	1 7 5
Painters	3	1 8 0	0 10 0	1 1 2	38 2 0	22 15 0	32 12 11	1 8 1
Patternmakers ...	1	1 10 0	0 9 0	1 12 0	43 0 0	43 0 0	43 0 0	2 0 0
Rivetters	4	1 10 0	0 9 0	1 1 4	48 14 3	15 6 0	31 2 8	1 6 0
Serangs	1	1 3 6	1 3 0	1 3 3	44 4 9	40 13 9	42 9 3	1 12 5
Templatemakers ...	1	0 12 0	0 10 0	0 11 4	25 14 8	23 6 11	24 4 9	1 1 3
Tinkers	1	1 8 0	1 3 0	1 5 6	41 11 0	32 8 6	37 1 9	1 11 0
Welders	5	2 12 0	0 12 0	1 14 9	66 10 6	16 8 9	50 3 2	2 4 9
Boiler Makers ...	1	1 6 0	1 0 0	1 2 8	44 14 5	33 8 0	39 3 10	1 11 10

The ranges of rates given above vary from those announced by the concerns in the Rate Schedules. The actual maximum wages paid are less than the maximum announced, but in most cases the actual minimum rates are either the same as or above the announced rates. The average basic rates paid are substantially higher than the minimum rates and in some cases close to the maximum rates. Thus, it appears that a large number of workers receive a basic wage rate higher than the announced minimum rates.

Bombay.—Except in one Government concern and to a certain extent in three private concerns, there does not seem to exist any time-scale or graded promotion. The rates of pay in the Government concern are divided into two schedules. (a) for those engaged on or after the 1st March 1933 and (b) for those engaged before that date. These rates for some of the categories of the workers are as follows:—

TABLE 76.

Wage-rates in a Government Factory in Bombay.

Occupation with grades	For employees engaged on or after 1-3-33				For employees engaged before 1-3-33			
	Daily rate	Monthly rate			Daily rate	Monthly rate		
		Minimum	Maximum	Annual increment		Minimum	Maximum	Annual increment
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Learners (under 17)	1 0 0	...	...	...	1 0 0	...	...	...
Learners (over 17)	1 8 0	...	...	...	1 8 0	...	...	...
Assembly Shop Mechanics	(a)	40 0 0	61 0 0	3 0 0	(a)	40 0 0	68 0 0	4 0 0
Assembly Shop Wiremen	(a)	40 0 0	61 0 0	3 0 0	(a)	40 0 0	68 0 0	4 0 0
Hammermen	1 0 0	28 0 0	33 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	28 0 0	35 0 0	1 0 0
Polishers II	1 12 0	50 0 0	65 0 0	3 0 0	1 12 0	55 0 0	75 0 0	5 0 0
„ „ I	(a)	70 0 0	82 0 0	4 0 0	(a)	75 0 0	85 0 0	5 0 0
Painters II	2 0 0	50 0 0	65 0 0	3 0 0	2 0 0	60 0 0	80 0 0	5 0 0
„ „ I	(a)	70 0 0	82 0 0	4 0 0	(a)	80 0 0	105 0 0	5 0 0
Platers II	2 0 0	45 0 0	60 0 0	3 0 0	2 8 0	45 0 0	65 0 0	5 0 0
„ „ I	(a)	65 0 0	72 0 0	4 0 0	(a)	65 0 0	75 0 0	5 0 0
Blacksmith, Carpenters & Turners II ...	2 0 0	55 0 0	70 0 0	3 0 0	2 8 0	60 0 0	80 0 0	5 0 0
„ „ „ „ I ...	(a)	75 0 0	95 0 0	4 0 0	(a)	80 0 0	105 0 0	5 0 0
Fitters III	1 8 0	40 0 0	52 0 0	3 0 0	1 8 0	40 0 0	56 0 0	4 0 0
„ II	2 0 0	55 0 0	70 0 0	3 0 0	2 0 0	60 0 0	80 0 0	5 0 0
„ I	(a)	75 0 0	95 0 0	4 0 0	(a)	80 0 0	105 0 0	5 0 0
Workshop Coolie	1 0 0	25 0 0	28 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	25 0 0	29 0 0	2 0 0
Electric Coolie	(a)	25 0 0	28 0 0	1 0 0	(a)	25 0 0	29 0 0	2 0 0
Store Coolie	(a)	25 0 0	33 0 0	1 0 0	(a)	25 0 0	35 0 0	2 0 0

Note : Increments are subject to satisfactory work and attendance.
(a) No daily rate in the case of these workers.

In one of the private concerns, no specific system of graded or time-scale promotion exists, though an effort is made to fix rates for various classes of work. After completion of the learning period, the personnel are included in one or the other of these classifications at the discretion of the Management. These classifications, with their rates of pay, are as follows:—

TABLE 77.

Scales of Wages rates in a Bombay Factory

Classification of employment.	Standard Rates of pay (in Rs. per day).			
	Class IV.	Class III.	Class II.	Class I
I. Setters-up, Tool Room Hands, Crafts men. ..	2-4	2-8	2-12	3-0
II. Machinists—Group A (i.e., Grinder, Fine Machine Tapping, Nos. 4 and 6 Autes, DSG lathe, Gaugers) and skilled workers, e.g., Motor winders.	None.	1-8	1-12	2-0
III. Machinists—Group B (i.e., small lathes, drills, No. 2 Autes milling etc.) semi-skilled (i.e., Assemblers. Fan Winders, store coolies. ..	None.	1-4	1-8	1-12
IV. Learners (i.e. Apprentices). ..	Grade of 14 as.—2 as.—Rs. 1-6-0 (at intervals of 2 to 6 months).			
V. Unskilled workers. ..	Below Rs. 1-4-0.			

In another Bombay concern, time-scale promotion exists only for coolies and hammermen, because they get a lower start than other skilled workmen. The scales are as under:—

TABLE 78.

Wage-rates for Hammermen and Coolies in a Bombay Factory.

Hammermen & Coolies.	Wage rates of wages in Rs. paid after a period of							
	Initial start	½ year	½ year	1 year	1½ years.	2 years.	3 years.	3½ years.
Hammermen	0-14	0-15	1-0	1-1	1-2	1-3	1-4	-
Coolies.	0-14	-	0-15	1-0	-	1-1	-	1-2

TABLE 79.

Monthly wages and earnings in Rupees in Bombay Province.

Occupation	Rates in Bombay City (10 factories)						Rates in Poona and Ahmedabad (3 factories)					
	Basic wages			Gross earnings			Basic Wages			Gross earnings		
	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.
Fitters	132	22	56	349	40	91	50	37	44	107	26	54
Turners	105	19	63	175	43	101	...	...	36	107	39	64
Moulders	110	25	52	163	45	89	...	...	50	130	33	70
Drillers	65	25	39	120	42	71	...	...	...	65	39	47
Carpenters	110	25	61	166	46	93	50	47	49	91	52	67
Blacksmiths	125	16	60	216	26	98	...	...	55	65	39	52
Painters	95	21	43	134	37	67	...	...	34	...		46
Hammermen	41	22	29	85	37	58	...	...	...	39	33	36
Machinists	73	21	44	154	36	76	...	...	...	111	33	83
Welders	75	33	64	142	65	103	...	...	...	...	...	...
Coolies	41	19	27	88	32	56	23	11	16	49	24	33

The wages and earnings, based on figures supplied by 13 concerns (10 in Bombay and 3 in other towns) are given in Table 79. It will be seen that the Bombay rates are higher.

Bengal.—The system of graded or time-scale promotions was found only in 8 concerns, most of them being "big". Increments for the skilled personnel varied from Rs. 2 to Rs. 5 annually while unskilled workmen on daily rates get increments ranging from one anna to two annas on completion of one year's service. The rates of wages since 1939 have gone up in almost all categories, including turners, welders, moulders etc., by about 100%. The increase in the rates for coolies is nearly 85%. Table 80 shows the maximum, minimum and average of both basic wages and gross earnings for some of the important occupations in the industry in Bengal:—

TABLE 80.

Wages and Earnings (in Rs.)—Bengal.

(Based on information for 13 concerns).

Occupations.	Basic wages.			Gross earnings.		
	Max.	Min.	Average.	Max.	Min.	Average.
Blacksmiths	2.48	1.24	1.72	3.13	1.61	2.24
Carpenters	2.75	2.10	2.34	3.55	2.65	3.05
Chippers	1.25	0.75	1.05	1.81	1.13	1.53
Cooly	1.04	0.78	0.86	1.57	1.21	1.43
Crane Driver	1.75	1.00	1.41	3.19	1.86	2.57
Driller	2.04	1.67	1.86	2.91	2.36	2.64
Fitter	2.55	1.08	1.56	3.29	1.43	2.10
Furnaceman	2.75	0.81	1.75	4.80	1.52	3.18
Hammerman	1.13	0.88	1.00	1.58	1.27	1.43
Khalasy	1.63	0.75	1.09	2.28	1.12	1.57
Mason	1.52	1.11	1.33	2.50	1.78	2.12
Moulder	2.43	0.97	1.67	3.16	1.29	2.20
Oilman	1.04	0.72	0.85	1.74	1.22	1.43
Pateernmaker	2.13	1.07	1.55	2.61	1.34	1.92
Planer	2.07	1.57	1.80	4.03	2.33	3.26
Rivetter	3.24	1.81	2.55	3.66	2.71	3.13
Shaper	1.77	0.89	1.35	2.22	1.16	1.69
Slotter	2.50	1.75	2.21	3.36	2.45	3.01
Tool Grinder	1.44	0.81	1.25	2.63	1.18	1.77
Turner	2.99	1.72	2.23	3.94	2.30	2.97
Welder	2.50	1.00	1.56	3.07	1.44	2.18

Bihar.—The increase in the wage-rates in Tatanagar since 1939 can be seen from the following figures for an iron foundry in that place.

TABLE 81.

Wage-rates in a Tatanagar Foundry.

Department.	August 1939	Wage rates during the period. 1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Ramming	1- 3- 0	1- 3- 0	1- 4- 0	1- 4- 0	1- 4- 0	1- 6- 0	1- 6- 0
Chapni	0-13- 0	0-13- 0	0-14- 0	0-14- 0	0-14- 0	0-15- 6	0-15- 0
Box S. Supplies.	0-11- 0	0-11- 0	0-12- 0	0-12- 0	0-12- 0	0-13- 0	0-13- 0
Block S. Supplies	0- 9- 0	0- 9- 0	0-10- 0	0-10- 0	0-10- 0	0-11- 0	0-11- 0
Sand L. Maker	0- 8- 0	0- 9- 0	0-10- 0	0-10- 0	0-10- 0	0-11- 0	0-11- 0
Kadawalla	0- 7- 6	0- 7- 6	0- 8- 6	0- 8- 6	0- 8- 0	0- 9- 6	0- 9- 6
Nali	0-13- 0	0-13- 0	0-14- 0	0-14- 0	0-14- 0	0-15- 0	0-15- 0
Clamptighter	1- 3-0	1- 3- 0	1- 4- 0	1- 4- 0	1- 4- 0	1- 5- 0	1- 5- 0
D. L. Carrier	0-13- 0	0-13 0	0-14- 0	0-14- 0	1- 0- 0	1- 1- 0	1- 1- 0
S. L. Carrier	0-11- 0	0-11- 0	0-12- 0	0-12- 0	0-14- 0	0-15- 0	0-15- 0
Stick-holder	0- 8- 0	0- 8- 0	0- 9- 0	0- 9- 0	0-10- 0	0-11- 0	0-11- 0
Runner-braker	0-10- 0	0-11- 0	0-12- 0	0-12- 0	0-15- 0	1- 0- 0	1- 0- 0
Laddle-repairer	0-10- 0	0-11- 0	0-12- 0	0-12- 0	0-14- 0	0-15- 0	0-15- 0
Big-laddler	0- 9- 0	0- 9- 0	0-10- 0	0-10- 0	0-12- 0	0-13- 0	0-13- 0
Removing Khalasi	0-13- 0	0-13- 0	0-14- 0	0-14- 0	0-14- 0	1- 0- 0	1- 0- 0
Water-boy	0- 8- 0	0- 9- 0	0- 9- 0	0- 9- 0	0-10- 0	0-10- 0	0-11- 0
St. Moulder	1- 1- 0	1- 1- 0	1- 2- 0	1- 2- 0	1- 2- 0	1- 3- 0	1- 3- 0
Sl. Ore maker	1- 1- 0	1- 1- 0	1- 2- 0	1- 2- 0	1- 2- 0	1- 3- 0	1- 3- 0

Two other factories investigated in Bihar have standardised their wages, not only according to the different categories of workers but also according to the different 'shops'. The following table gives the minimum and maximum wage rates in these two factories.

TABLE 82.

Wage-rates in Rs. in two Bihar Factories.

Occupation.	Wage rates in Factory I.		Wage rates in Factory II.	
	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum.
Blacksmiths	1- 8- 0	3- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	2- 6- 0
Fitters	1- 8- 0	3- 8- 0	1- 6- 0	3- 2- 0
Shearers	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0	1- 6- 0	2- 6- 0
Grinders	1- 0- 0	2- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	2- 8- 0
Firemen	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	1- 0- 0	1- 6- 0
Serangs	2- 0- 0	—	1- 8- 0	2- 6- 0
Khalasies	0- 8- 0	2- 6- 0	0-12- 0	1- 4- 0
Hammermen	0-14- 0	1- 6- 0	0-14- 0	1- 4- 0
Moulders	1- 0- 0	2-12- 0	1-12- 0	2- 2- 0
Painters	0-12- 0	2- 0- 0	0-14- 0	1- 6- 0
Masons	0-14- 0	2- 0- 0	1- 4- 0	2- 2- 0
Turners	1- 8- 0	3- 0- 0	1- 4- 0	3- 2- 0
Oilmen	0-14- 0	1- 0- 0	0-14- 0	1- 2- 0
Machinemen	1- 0- 0	3- 0- 0	1- 2- 0	2- 8- 0
Drillers	1- 0- 0	1-10- 0	1- 2- 0	1- 4- 0
Welders	0 12- 0	3- 0- 0	1- 0- 0	2- 2- 0
Drivers	0-12-0	5- 8- 0	1- 0- 0	2-10- 0
Carpenters	1- 4- 0	2- 2- 0	2- 0- 0	2- 6- 0
Coolies	0- 8- 0	0- 9- 0	0- 8- 0	0- 9- 0
Rejas (sweepers)	0- 7- 0	0- 7- 6	0- 7- 0	0- 8- 0

The higher staff such as foremen, shift-foremen, supervisors, mistries, chemists, etc., have graded scales, which vary from Rs. 100 to Rs. 950 p.m. with annual increment, varying from Rs. 5 to Rs. 25.

United Provinces.—The system of graded or time-scale promotion was found only in one concern. Contract labour is employed by all the three concerns and the rates are said to be practically the same as those paid to labour employed directly. Considerable changes in basic wages have occurred since August 1939; for instance, a coolie was paid, on an average, 6 as. to 7 as. per day in 1939 whereas now he is paid 9 as. to 10 as. per day. The wage rates in one concern are given below:—

TABLE 83.

Wage-rates in a U. P. Factory.

Monthly paid staff.			Daily rated staff.		
Occupation	Minimum	Maximum.	Occupation	Minimum	Maximum.
Shift Incharge	90	250	Head Fitters	2|-	3|8
Mistry	60	160	Fitter	1|4	3|-
Fitter Apprentice	40	60	Asst. Fitter	-|12	1|8
Electrician	40	100	Fitter Cooly	-|10	1|-
S. B. attendant	30	50	Carpenter	1|-	2|8
Motor Man	18	30	Cárpenter Cooly	-|10	-|14
Bandhani Cooly	16	20	Blacksmith	1|8	2|8
			Hammerman	-|10	-|14
			Welder	1|4	3|-
			Painter	1|-	2|-
			Bandhani	-|12	1|-
			Pattern maker	1|8	3|-
			Core maker	1|-	1|8

Punjab.—None of the concerns investigated has any system of graded or time-scale promotion. Contract labour is employed only in one concern and it receives more, it is stated, than the company's labour. Wages since 1939 have increased as the following figures show:—

TABLE 84.

Wages and Earnings in a Punjab Factory.

Occupation.	1939		1945.			
	Basic Wages		Basic wages		Gross Earnings.	
	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.
	Rs. as.	Rs. as.	Rs. as.	Rs. as.	Rs. as.	Rs. as.
Turners	0- 8	1-10	1- 4	2- 9	1-12	3- 1
Welders	0-13	2- 0	1- 8	3- 0	2- 0	3- 8
Fitters	0-12	1- 8	0-14	4- 0	1- 6	4- 8
Coolies	0- 4	0- 9	0- 8	0-15	1- 0	1- 7
Hammermen	0- 9	0-12	0-10	0- 8	1- 2	2- 0
Blacksmiths	0-14	2- 8	1- 5	3- 0	1-13	3- 8
Masons	(a)	1- 4	1- 8	2- 0	2- 0	2- 8
Electricians	(a)	0-12	1- 4	2- 4	1-12	2-12
Carpenters	0-14	1-10	1- 6	2- 0	1-14	2- 8
Moulders	0- 8	2- 0	1- 0	5- 0	1- 8	5- 8
Core Makers	0-10	1- 0	1- 0	3- 8	1- 8	4- 0
Firemen	(a)	1- 4	0-11	1- 9	1- 3	2- 1
Tongsmen	0-11	1-10	0-14	2- 4	1- 6	2-12
Shapers	(a)	(a)	1- 4	2- 0	1-12	2- 8
Planners	(a)	(a)	1- 8	2- 8	2- 0	3- 0
Drillers	(a)	(a)	1- 4	1- 8	1-12	2- 0
Slotters	(a)	(a)	0-14	1- 6	1- 6	1-14
Grinders	(a)	(a)	0-10	1- 0	1- 2	1- 8
Markers	(a)	(a)	1-12	3- 8	2- 4	4- 0
Polishers	(a)	(a)	0-12	1- 2	1- 4	1-10
Khalasies	(a)	(a)	0- 8	2- 8	1- 0	3- 0
Rivetters	(a)	(a)	(a)	3- 0	(a)	3- 8
Bar holders	(a)	(a)	0- 8	1- 1	1- 0	1- 9

(a) Not available, or fixed wage.

The wage rates and earnings in two other concerns are given below:—

TABLE 85.

Wage-rates in two Punjab Factories.

Occupation	Concern I.		Concern II.	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
Turners	2- 8	7- 0	1-12	3- 8
Fitters	2- 0	4- 2	1-12	3- 8
Moulders	1-10	8- 0	1-10	3- 8
Carpenters	3- 2	3-12	2- 0	3- 6
Painters	2-10	4- 0	1- 6	3- 0
Coolies	1- 2	1-15	1- 0	1- 4
Blacksmiths	3-12	6- 0	1-12	2-14

Baroda.—None of the three concerns investigated has a graded or time-scale system promotion. In one of the concerns, the minimum daily wage rate is 11 as. while the minimum monthly wage is Rs. 32. The wage-rates and gross earnings in the other two concerns are given below:—

TABLE 86.

Wage-rates and Gross earnings in two Baroda Factories.

Occupation	Number of workers	Daily Wage Rate		Basic wages earned			Gross earnings		
		Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.
		Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Factory I									
Fitters	45	3 6 0	1 2 0	50 2 6	29 0 6	40 5 8	50 2 6	29 0 6	40 5 0
Moulders	74	3 0 0	1 0 0	78 14 3	28 2 0	47 3 10	78 14 3	28 2 0	47 3 0
Coolies	90	1 0 0	0 12 0	35 12 9	18 5 6	24 6 5	35 12 9	18 5 6	24 6 4
Factory II									
Fitters	1	...	1 12 0	39 0 0	39 0 0	39 0 0	39 0 0	39 0 0	39 0 0
Turners	3	5 0 0	1 2 0	117 8 0	14 4 0	73 4 8	117 8 0	14 4 0	73 14 0
Moulders	3	3 14 0	2 12 0	120 4 0	50 5 0	75 14 0	120 4 0	50 5 0	75 14 0
Carpenters	3	2 8 0	1 8 0	67 8 0	28 8 0	44 8 0	67 8 0	28 8 0	44 8 0
Coolies	11	...	1 0 0	26 0 0	13 0 0	21 8 0	26 0 0	13 0 0	21 8 0

Mysore.—The following table shows the daily wage-rates paid in the factory investigated. A day consists of 8 hours.

TABLE 87.

Daily-Wage-rates in the Mysore Factory.

	Type of work.	Grade.	Wage rate. Min.	Max.
			Rs. as. p.	Rs. as. p.
(1)	Highly skilled jobs of a very responsible nature (chargemen, Mistries, etc.) ..	I	2-10- 0	3- 0- 0
		II	2- 2- 0	2- 8- 0
(2)	Skilled jobs requiring good experience and careful handling ..	I	1-10- 0	2- 0- 0
		II	1- 4- 0	1- 8- 0
(3)	Semi-skilled jobs or jobs of an arduous nature		0-12- 0	1- 2- 0
(4)	Unskilled jobs requiring handling by male adults		0- 8- 0	0-11- 0
(5)	Jobs that can be handled by boys or women (Adolescents and female coolies). ..		0- 5- 0	0- 8- 0

Note.—Skilled and semi-skilled jobs [classes (2) and (3)] include masons, machinists, moulders, blacksmiths, fitters, turners, etc.

It is estimated that there has been an increase of about 15 to 25 per cent in the rates since 1939 in the lower grades and up to 60 per cent in the higher grades.

Dearness Allowance.—In this section of the industry, there is no uniformity in regard to the method of paying dearness allowance. Out of the 65 concerns investigated in the different Provinces and States, it was found that in 9 the allowance was paid at a flat rate for all workers; in 17 at different flat rates for different wage categories; in 9 a sliding scale was adopted based on the cost of living index numbers; in 9 of the concerns the allowance was paid on a percentage basis; and in 12 more than one method was followed. In 9 concerns no dearness allowance was paid, at all, but most of them had increased their basic wages during the war period. The allowance was paid either on a daily basis or on a monthly basis. In the former case, the rate varied from As. 4 to As. 10, while in the latter case the variation was from Rs. 2 to Rs. 18. In all cases, the allowance was linked with attendance. It was, however, found that in one concern the allowance was paid on an hourly basis, the rate being 6 pies per hour. In some cases, the rates differed for different categories of workers. For example, in one concern the rates for blacksmiths were Rs. 4, 3 and 2, for fitters Rs. 15, 10, 4 and 3; for turners Rs. 4; for coolies Rs. 2; for pattern-makers Rs. 4; and for machinemen Rs. 4 and 3 respectively. In Bombay, most of the concerns have adopted the Bombay Millowners' Association's scale subject to certain conditions. In the Bengal factories, the allowance paid varies from one anna to six annas in the rupee. In a U.P. factory, the lowest paid workers get as dearness allowance Re. 0-10-6 per rupee while the highest paid workers get Re. 0-4-6 in the rupee. In a factory in the Punjab, dearness allowance is paid at the rate of 10 per cent. of the basic wages. In another U.P. factory, ordinary coolies get dearness allowance at the rates of 0-5-6 per rupee while workmen employed on monthly wages are paid at the rates recommended by the Employers' Association of Northern India. The four factories investigated in Bihar paid Rs. 10 per month to those drawing up to Rs. 100, with an addition of Rs. 3 per additional income of Rs. 100 per month. Those getting Rs. 500 and above got only 10 per cent of their salary as dearness allowance.

Bonuses and other Allowances.—Out of the 65 concerns investigated, 34 pay a prosperity bonus. This varies from 25 days wages to three months' wages in a year and is generally subject to condition such as a prescribed number of days' attendance, employment at the time of the distribution of the bonus etc. In a Bombay concern, those who receive the bonus in twelve equal instalments are paid in addition 25 per cent. at the time of final payment. Besides the War bonus, workers in the Engineering section of the industry receive certain other allowances as well. For instance, in Madras while the Government factories do not give a prosperity bonus they grant what is called a Saturday bonus which may be considered as an-attendance bonus. In a Bombay factory, production bonus is given to certain workmen engaged on specialised jobs. In Bengal three factories award the Puja bonus which in one case is equivalent to 50 per cent of the salaries of the workers. In another Bengal concern, the time-rated workers are allowed annually a general bonus equivalent to two months' earnings while piece-rated workers get 10 per cent, as "excess earnings". In the biggest factory in Bihar, several miscellaneous allowances are paid such as departmental bonus, shipment bonus, new departmental bonus, attendance bonus, efficiency bonus, demurrage bonus, Hot ingot bonus etc.

Overtime.—In General Engineering, there has been very considerable overtime working during the war period and our investigations show that out of the 65 factories investigated, only in 14 there was no overtime work. The provisions of the Factories Act in regard to the payment for overtime are generally observed.

Fines.—We noticed that only in 18 concerns there was a system of fining, 1 in Madras, 5 in Bombay, 6 in Bengal, 1 in U.P., 1 in the Punjab, 1 in Bihar, 2 in Baroda and Mysore. In Mysore, no separate fine fund is maintained, the amount being credited to the general revenues of the factory.

Wage Period.—There is no uniformity as regards the wage period and we found that in 40 cases it was a month, in 8 a fortnight, in 8 a week; while in 9 the wage period differred even from department to department. Where such variation occurs, unskilled workers are generally paid either daily or weekly and skilled workers monthly. The faiting period in the case of monthly paid workers varies from 7 to 10 days and in the case of weekly payments, normally one week's pay is kept in hand and payment is made on a subsequent Saturday.

ii. *Electrical Engineering.*

The basic wage rates for different occupations in this section of the industry show, on the whole, some improvement on the prer-war figure, the degree of rise varying from unit to unit. For example, out of the four factories investigated in Madras, two had given no increase in their basis wage rates since 1939. In the third factory, rates fixed in 1940 continued up to 30-11-44. Since then they have been slightly raised. In the fourth factory, it has been stated that there has been a 50 to 100 per cent rise in basic wages. Generally speaking, the skilled trades have shown a greater rise in wage-rates than the unskilled. In Bengal, the average rise was found to be 6 as. to 7 as. in the daily wage rates, while in both the units investigated in the Punjab, basic wages have not

been increased at all. It may, however, be mentioned that the rise in the cost of living is compensated more by the grant of a dearness allowance than by an increase in basic wages.

The wage rates and earnings according to Provinces, for various classes of workers are given in Tables 88-93.

TABLE 88.

Madras (based on January 1944 figures for 4 concerns).

Occupation.	Daily basic wages.		Monthly Earnings.		Average daily earnings.	
	Max.	Min.	Average	Max.	Min.	
	Rs. as.	Rs. as.	Rs. as. p.	Rs. as.	Rs. as.	Rs. as. p.
Blacksmith	2- 3	0- 8	1- 5-11	51- 9	29- 5	1-13- 3
Carpenter	2- 4	0- 7	1- 6- 1	55- 3	31- 8	1-12- 9
Driver	1- 6	1- 1	1- 5- 4	67-13	51- 9	1-13- 2
Driller	2- 3	0-12	1- 0- 6	35- 9	33- 6	1- 7- 4
Fitter	2- 8	0- 7	1-10- 8	84- 2	33- 3	2- 2- 9
Fireman	2- 3	0-10	1- 7- 7	78- 2	43- 5	1-14- 9
Creaser	1- 6	0-12	0-12- 9	40-12	40-12	1- 5- 0
Hammerman	1- 4	0- 7	0-15- 6	45- 8	24-11	1-10- 4
Maistry & Serang	2-12	1- 1	1- 7- 1	80- 3	48- 7	1-14- 8
Moulder	2- 0	0- 8	1-13- 9	49- 0	57- 0	2- 8- 4
Painter	1- 0	0-11	1- 3- 4	72-12	30- 6	1- 9-11
Turner & Machinemen	2- 8	0- 7	1- 6- 2	62- 6	26- 2	1-13- 0
Cleaner	1- 7	0- 8	0-13- 8	56- 8	24-13	1- 1- 7
Cooly	2- 0	0- 5	0-10- 5	43-13	17-12	1- 1- 8

TABLE 89.

Bombay (based on figures for 10 concerns).

Occupation	Nature of Industry.	Monthly basic wages.			Monthly gross earnings.		
		Max.	Min.	Average	Max.	Min.	Average.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Fitter	E	111	50	70	119	73	83
	P	120	23	53	152	41	79
	B	90	25	51	132	25	107
Carpenter	E	90	44	77	102	67	93
	P	60	20	36	76	57	63
	B	71	26	41	163	37	86
Blacksmith	E	83	48	71	106	60	75
	P	67	23	43	83	54	67
	B	56	28	36	98	56	79
Fireman	P	60	13	35	81	41	61
	B	65	17	37	119	40	70
Cooly	E	42	20	31	49	29	43
	P	32	13	18	55	34	46
	B	27	13	22	77	38	61

E—Three Miscellaneous Electrical workshops.

P—Three Miscellaneous Power Stations.

B—Four B.E.S. & T Factories.

TABLE 90.

Bengal (based on figures for 13 units).

Occupation.	Daily Basic wages.			Daily Gross earnings.		
	Max. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Average Rs.	Max. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Average. Rs.
I. *Lamp Manufacturing Company* (3).						
Ageing	2.31	0.56	1.14	4.72	0.94	2.09
Vacuming	2.31	1.00	1.20	4.72	1.38	2.15
Sealing	1.63	0.56	1.04	3.27	0.94	1.87
Gettering	1.41	0.58	1.14	3.27	1.41	2.19
Filament Mounting	1.41	0.58	1.14	3.27	1.41	2.19
Foot making	1.41	0.50	0.98	3.16	0.88	1.73
Mounting	1.41	0.50	1.11	3.35	0.88	2.05
Inserting	1.41	0.50	1.05	3.25	0.88	1.99
Capping	1.41	0.50	0.82	3.26	0.88	1.57
Stamping	1.44	0.50	0.86	1.82	0.88	1.40
Soldering	1.41	0.69	0.96	2.13	1.45	1.80
Designing & Spiralling	4.23	0.50	2.03	9.62	9.62	4.09
Nock making	1.41	0.63	0.96	2.35	1.00	1.66
Gas filling	1.41	0.50	1.03	1.82	0.85	1.43
Chemical	1.41	0.81	1.02	1.82	1.13	1.42
Sorting	1.41	0.58	1.01	2.85	0.96	1.78
Washing	1.73	0.58	0.87	1.82	0.98	1.27
Packing	1.73	0.58	1.06	4.41	1.42	2.01
II. *Manufacture of fans & general electrical goods* (6).						
Machine Fitter	2.48	1.21	1.51	2.30	1.81	2.12
Latheman	2.42	1.05	1.60	2.67	1.36	1.88
Viceman	1.52	0.82	1.17	1.74	1.61	1.38
Turner	1.96	1.03	1.45	2.61	1.53	2.01
Electric Fitter	1.44	0.33	0.95	1.88	0.62	1.25
Painter	2.16	0.89	1.34	3.27	1.48	2.16
Blacksmith	1.45	0.90	1.19	1.99	1.49	1.76
Carpenter	1.55	1.20	1.35	2.23	1.82	2.00
Checker	1.13	0.81	0.99	1.78	1.47	1.64
Tinsmith	1.56	0.75	1.02	2.27	1.41	1.68
Driller	1.41	0.94	1.15	2.03	1.40	1.69
Grinder	1.88	0.94	1.26	2.67	1.59	1.96
Moulder	2.60	0.99	1.32	3.83	1.38	1.92
Pattern maker	3.79	1.68	2.01	4.37	2.01	3.14
Electrician	3.60	2.03	2.82	4.45	2.54	3.49
Coolies	1.41	1.03	1.23	1.82	1.45	1.64
III. *Power Stations* (4).						
Carpenter	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23
Pumpman	0.95	0.83	0.92	1.23	1.06	1.17
Machine Fitter	4.61	1.46	3.02	1.96	1.51	1.76
Electric Fitter	2.81	1.47	1.99	2.97	1.45	1.99
Fireman	1.50	1.39	1.44	—	—	—
Switch Board Attendant	1.22	0.83	0.99	1.86	1.32	1.56
Ashman	1.11	1.00	1.04	1.81	1.16	1.37
Cleaner	0.65	0.65	0.65	1.17	1.15	1.16
Khalasi	0.76	0.64	0.70	1.10	1.05	1.07
Wireman	1.11	0.65	0.36	1.70	1.29	1.49
Mason	1.61	1.55	1.58	1.61	1.55	1.58

TABLE 91.

Punjab (2 concerns).

Concern No.	Monthly wages and earnings of unskilled workers. Basic daily rated Rs.	Wages Monthly rated Rs.	Gross Daily rated Rs.	Earnings monthly rated. Rs.
I	30-14-0	19- 8- 0	30-14- 0	30- 8- 0
II	16- 4- 0	—	33- 4- 0	—

TABLE 92.

Bihar (an Electrical Workshop).

Occupation.	Wage-rates. Max.	Min.	Monthly basic wages. Max.	Min.	Av.	Monthly Gross earnings. Max.	Min.	Av.
Fitter	2- 8- 0	2- 4- 0	60	30	45	87	48	67
Turner	2- 8- 0	2- 4- 0	84	36	48	120	55	69
Electricians	2- 4- 0	1- 4- 0	48	24	38	72	35	58
Blacksmith	2- 0- 0	1- 4- 0	60	48	53	86	71	77
Carpenter	1-10- 0	1- 4- 0	51	27	36	75	45	56
Khalasi	1- 0- 0	0-12- 0	—	—	24	—	—	37
Welder	2- 8- 0	2- 4- 0	60	54	57	89	81	85
Coolies	0- 9- 0	0- 8- 0	17	12	13	31	22	25
Rejas	0-12- 0	0- 7- 6	15	9	11	25	19	21

TABLE 93.

U. P. (a Power Station)

Occupation.	Wages rates on 31.5.39. Max.	Min.	Wages rates on 1.1.1944. Max.	Min.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Armature winder	32	80	53	100
Attendants (turnbine, Boiler, etc.)	35	70	80	110
Blacksmith	24½	82½	43	60
Carpenter	37½	60½	38	68
Graneman	30	—	27	40
Cooly	—	—	18	—
Driller	30	37½	35	40
Electrician	135	—	63	—
Fitter	18¾	65	37	67
Moulder	30	60	48	75
Tinsmith	37½	—	52	—
Turner	22½	56¼	35	65
Welder	45	90	45	90
Wireman	22½	45	27½	60

iii. *Railway Workshops.*

Wages and Earnings.—All the railway administrations have fixed definite grades for different categories of workers both skilled and unskilled. These grades are fixed in some cases by taking into consideration the cost of living in the particular locality. In the B.B. & C.I. Railway, for example, an ordinary carpenter gets Rs. 1-8-0 per day in Dohad, or Ajmer, while he gets Rs. 1-14-0 in Bombay. The skilled and unskilled workers are divided and sub-divided into a number of categories and in

some cases the subdivision is carried on to such an extent that the workers think it to be an ingenious device adopted by the authorities to keep the workers always at a low level of wages. For example, in a M. & S. M. Railway workshop, the Train Lighting Fitters are sub-divided into seven classes, with daily wage rates ranging from 14 as. to Rs. 3-12-0 per day. In G.I.P. Railway, some of the categories have been sub-divided into 'special', 'superior' and 'ordinary' grades with two scales of payment, old and new or revised. Similarly in B.B. & C.I. Railway the workers under the old scale have been divided into 'ordinary' 'superior' and 'special' grades but those under the new scale are called, 'Assistant', 'Ordinary', and 'Superior'. Only a certain fixed proportion of workers in each category is entitled to get the upper grade maximum pay. For example, only 25% of wagon carpenters can go up to Rs. 2-11-0 which is the maximum pay given to 'Special' grade wagon carpenters. These conditions can be seen from Tables 94 and 95 relating to wages in the B.B. & C.I. Railway.

TABLE 94.

Daily Wage rates in Rupees in B. B. & C. I. Workshop (Parel, Bombay).

Occupation	Old Scale						Revised scale					
	Ordinary		Superior		Special		Assistant (30%)		Ordinary (50%)		Superior 20(%)	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.
Acetylene Welders	...	—	2 11	3 9	4 1	4 5	1 1	1 7	1 10	2 6	2 9	3 5
Blacksmiths	1 8	2 9	2 15	3 9	4 1	4 5*	1 1	1 7	1 10	2 6	2 9	2 14
Carpenters, Wagon	1 5	2 4	2 8	2 11	...	...	...	...	1 0	1 8	...	...
Carpenters, Carriage	1 7	2 11	3 1	3 5	3 13	4 5	1 1	1 7	1 10	2 0	2 3	2 9
Crane drivers	...	...	1 8	2 9	...	...	...	...	1 2	1 6	1 8	1 14
Electric Welders	...	...	1 8	2 4	2 9	3 12	1 1	1 7	1 10	2 6	2 9	3 5
Fitters, C. & W	1 7	2 11	3 1	3 5	3 13	4 5	1 7	1 7	1 10	2 6	2 9	2 14
Fitters, Loco	...	...	2 9	3 5	3 13	4 5	...	...	...	...	...	...
Moulders	1 5	2 4	2 9	3 5	3 13	4 5	...	...	...	...	...	...
Machinemen	1 9	2 10	...	...	...	...	...	...	1 4	2 0	2 3	2 9
Painters & Polishers	1 9	2 10	3 0	3 5	...	...	1 1	1 7	1 10	1 14	2 0	2 9
Spring Makers	1 8	2 9	2 15	3 9	4 1	4 5	1 1	1 7	1 10	2 6	2 9	2 14
Tin Smiths	2 9	2 15	...	...	...	...	1 1	1 7	1 10	2 6	2 9	2 14
Turners	1 9	2 10	3 0	3 5	3 13	4 5	1 1	1 7	1 10	2 6	2 9	2 14
Trimmers	1 9	2 10	3 0	3 5	3 13	4 5	1 1	1 7	1 10	2 0	2 3	2 9
Drillers	1 4	1 14	...	...	...	...	...	...	1 2	1 8	...	...
Firemen	1 0	1 5	...	...	...	...	...	...	0 12	1 0	...	...
Cleaners	0 14	1 2	...	...	1 3	1 5	...	...	0 12	1 0	...	...
Coolies	0 12	1 0	...	...	1 1	1 2	...	...	0 12	0 14	0 14	0 15
Helpers	0 14	1 2	...	...	1 3	1 5	...	...	0 14	1 0	...	...
Oilers	0 14	1 2	...	...	1 3	1 5	...	...	0 14	1 0	...	...

TABLE 95.

Monthly and Daily Wages in B. B. & C. I. Railway, Workshops.

Occupation	Workshop I				Workshop II				Workshop III			
	Old scale		New Scale		Old Scale		New Scale		Old Scale		New Scale	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.
Fitter-Spl.*	80 0	105 0	60 0	75 0	3 13	4 5	2 9	2 14	...	...	...	...
„ Su.	65 0	80 0	45 0	60 0	3 1	3 5	1 10	2 6	...	...	...	...
„ Or.	45 0	65 0	30 0	45 0	1 7	2 11	1 1	1 7	...	...	...	...
Turner-Spl.	...	...	...	...	3 13	4 5	2 9	2 14	2 8	3 1	1 12	2 6
„ Su.	...	...	...	...	3 0	3 5	1 10	2 6	...	...	...	...
„ Or.	...	...	...	...	1 9	2 10	1 1	1 7	1 4	2 8	1 2	1 12
M/C. Man-Su.	...	...	...	...	...	...	2 3	2 9	...	...	...	...
„ Or.	...	...	...	...	1 3	1 14	1 0	1 8	...	...	...	...
Carpenter-Spl.	80 0	105 0	60 0	75 0	1 13	4 5	2 3	2 9	2 8	3 0	2 0	2 9
„ Su.	65 0	80 0	45 0	60 0	3 1	3 5	1 10	2 0	...	...	...	...
„ Or.	45 0	65 0	30 0	45 0	1 7	2 11	1 1	1 7	1 8	2 4	1 2	1 4
Painter-Su.	65 0	80 0	...	40	3 0	3 5	1 10	1 14	...	...	...	...
„ Or.	40 0	60 0	25 0	4 0	1 9	2 10	1 1	1 7	....	...	...	...
Blacksmith-Su.	80 0	105 0	60 0	75 0	2 15	3 9	2 3	2 9	...	...	...	...
„ Or.	45 0	65 0	30 0	45 0	1 8	2 9	1 10	2 0	...	...	...	...
Tinsmith-Su.	65 0	80 0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
„ Or.	40 0	60 0	25 0	40 0	2 9	2 15	1 1	1 7	0 8	2 0	0 12	1 10
Coolie	24 0	...	22 0	...	0 12	1 0	0 12	0 14	...	...	...	...

*Spl. Su., and Or. mean 'special', 'superior' and 'ordinary' classes respectively. In many cases, each class is further divided into two categories, 'A' and 'B' with varying grades.

The wage position in the railway workhhops in the G.I.P., M. & S.M., E.I., and B.N. Railways is shown in Table 96-99. It will appear that wherever the scales have been revised this has been in the downward direction. The reductions have been very substantial in several cases.

TABLE 96.

Monthly Wage Rates in G. I. P. Workshops.

(Based on figures for 6 workshops).

Occupations.	Class.	Old scale. Mix.	Old scale. Min.	New scale Mix.	New scale Min.
Instrument Fitter	Special	90- 0	100- 0	75- 0	85- 0
Instrument Fitter	Superior	70- 0	86- 0	66- 0	75- 0
Instrument Fitter	Ordinary	45- 0	65- 0	40- 0	62- 0
Fitter	Special	50- 0	100- 0	45- 0	85- 0
Fitter	Superior	35- 0	86- 0	40- 0	75- 0
Fitter	Ordinary	26- 0	65- 0	26- 0	62- 0
Turner	Special	90- 0	100- 0	75- 0	85- 0
Turner	Superior	48- 0	85- 0	45- 0	75- 0
Turner	Ordinary	35- 0	74- 0	26- 0	62- 0
Machineman	Superior	35- 0	86- 0	30- 0	75- 0
Machineman	Ordinary	35- 0	60- 0	26- 0	62- 0
Carpenter	Special	90- 0	100- 0	75- 0	85- 0
Carpenter	Superior	39- 0	86- 0	43- 0	75- 0
Carpenter	Ordinary	26- 0	60- 0	30- 0	62- 0
Blacksmith	Ordinary	32- 0	60- 0	26- 0	62- 0
Tinsmith	Superior	61- 0	74- 0	55- 0	66- 0
Tinsmith	Ordinary	37- 0	60- 0	30- 0	52- 0
Cooly male		14- 0	26- 0	13- 0	24- 0
Cooly female		12- 0	18- 0	12- 0	16- 0

TABLE 97.

Wage rates in M. and S. M. Railway Workshop (Bombay).

	Old Scale (Grade)	New Scale (Grade)
Train Lighting Fitters	(a) 14 as. 1 a. Re. 1/-	11 as. 2 a. 13 as.
	(b) Rs. 1/1/- 1 a. Rs. 1/4/-	13 as. 1 a. Rs. 1/2/-
	(c) Rs. 1/4/- 2 as. Rs. 1/12/-	Rs. 1/4/- 1 a. Rs. 1/8/-
	(d) Rs. 1/14/- 3 as. Rs. 2/4/-	Rs. 1/10/- 1 a. Rs. 2/2/-
	(e) Rs. 2/7/- 3 as. Rs. 2/13/-	
	(f) Rs. 3/- 4 as Rs. 3/8/-	Rs. 2/4(- 2 as. Rs. 2/14/-
	(g) Rs. 3/12/- 4 as. Rs. 4/4/-	Rs. 2/15/- 2 as. Rs. 3/8/-
Mechanical Fitters	(a) Rs. 1/4/- 2 as. Rs. 1/12/-	Rs. 1/4/- 1 a. Rs. 1/8/-
	(b) Rs. 1/14/- 3 as. Rs. 2/4/-	Rs. 1/10/- 1 a. Rs. 2/2/-
	(c) Rs. 3/- 4 as. Rs. 3/8/-	Rs. 57/8/- Rs. 2 8/- Rs. 75/- p.m.
Electric Fitters	(a) Rs. 1/1/- 1 a. Rs. 1/4/-	As. 13 1a. Rs. 1/2/-
	(b) Rs. 1/4/- 2 as. Rs. 1/12/-	Rs. 1/4 - 1 a. Rs. 1/8/-
	(c) Rs. 1/14/- 3 as. Rs. 2/4/-	Rs. 1/10/- 1a. Rs. 2/2/-
	(d) Rs. 3/- 4 as. Rs. 3/8/-	Rs. 2/4 - 2 as. Rs. 2/14/-
Machineman ...	Rs. 1/14/- 3 as. Rs. 2/4/-	Rs. 1/10/- 1 a. Rs. 2/2/-
Coolies (Spl.) ...	As. 14 1 a. Rs. 1/1/-	As. 11 2 a. As. 13
Coolies ...	As. 10 1 a. as. 13	As. 8½ a. As 10 (p.d.) Rs. 13(- 8 as. Rs. 16 (p.m)

TABLE 98.

Grades for Lillooah Workshop Employees

Category.		*Grade.*
Unskilled	..	18—1—21
Semi-skilled (Boys)	..	12—1—18
Semi-skilled (Adults)	..	22—1—28
Skilled	..	(i) 22—1—28
	..	(ii) 30—1—40
	..	(iii) 44—2—60
Gharge heads (Grade I)	..	30—3—45—5—60
(Grade II)	..	65—5|2—85
Non T.T. Chargemen	..	100—10|2—120

TABLE 99.

Wage-rates in B. N. Railway's Workshop (Kharagpur).

Group	Some important occupations included in the Group.	Revised scales of pay in Rs.	Old scales of pay in annas per day.
I. Skilled ...	Semi-Diesel Driver, Spl. Electric Welder, Gabge Fitter, Gabge Turner etc.	60 o o	48—2—50/3—56
II. „	Boiler-maker, Carpenter, Die-sinker, Fitter, Moulder, Patternmaker, Turner Welder, Winder, Wiremen, etc	60 o o 48 o o 36 o o	(i) 32—2—46 (ii) 16—2—31
III. „	Driver, Grinder, Machine-men, (Driller, Forging Machine, Gear cutter) Miller, Slotter, Sawyer, Tummer wheel, Trimmer etc.	45 o o 39 o o 33 o o	(i) 30—2—32 (ii) 12—1—16/2—29
IV. „	Carpenter (Rough), Core maker, Crane Driver, Mason, Painter, Rivetter etc.	36 o o 30 o o	(i) 24—2—32 (ii) 12—1—16/2—35
V. Semi-Skilled	Furnaceman, Paint mixer, Motor Trolly Driver, Machine Attendant, Muccadum (male) etc.	30 o o 27 o o	(i) 21—2—25 (ii) 12—1—16/2—19
VI. „	Machinemen (Hydraulic Press, Sand mixer, Sawman, Screwer, Shearer etc.	30 o o 27 o o	(i) 13—2—23 (ii) 11—1—17
VII. Inferior	Fitter, Firemen, Hammer-man, Machine Feeder, Cleaner and Oiler etc.	21 o o	12—1—16
VIII. „	Carpenter Boy, Female Muccadam, Rivet Boy.	18 o o	10—1—14
IX. „	Pointsman.	18 o o	11—1—12
X. „	Cleaner, Male Coolie, Trollyman	17 4 o	10½—1—11½
XI. „	Carpenter Boy and Rivet Boy (both below 17 years)	9 1 11	6—1—10
XII. „	Female coolie ...	12 o o	8—1—9

Dearness and other Allowances.—A detailed account of dearness and other allowances has been given in the Report on Non-Gazetted Railway Services. Most of the railways have adopted the scale prescribed by the Railway Board, which provides for the payment of dearness allowance at the rate of 17½ per cent of pay, subject to certain minima. Some of the company-managed railways have their own scales. For example, skilled workers in Martin and Co's workshop are given dearness allowance at the rate of Rs. 9 per month and the unskilled workers at the rate of Rs. 7 per month. In the Darjeeling Himalaya Rly. workshop, dearness allowance is at the rate of Rs. 20 for 26 working days. Various local allowances are in existence in many workshops. The B.B. & C.I. Railway workshops in Bombay gives a Bombay local allowance at the rate of 20 per cent to subordinate staff drawing up to Rs. 50 and 15% to those drawing over Rs. 50. This allowance is permanent.

In some of the M. & S.M. Railway workshops, workers employed in connection with munition work are granted a bonus of 20 per cent. of pay up to 48 hours per week and 25 per cent for work over 48 hours. In the Barsi Light Railway workshop, the workers get one month's wages as bonus. In many railways, workers who are members of D. of I. units are granted 25% of their basic pay as Military compensatory allowance and a ration allowance varying from 4 as. to Rs. 1-1-0 per day. Anglo-Indians get a higher ration allowance than Indians.

Earnings. In addition to basic wages, workers in Railway workshops receive dearness allowance and food concessions, details of which will be given later in the section dealing with Railways.

Overtime.—Overtime is worked in the larger workshops according to the exigencies of the situation and is paid for in accordance with the provisions of the Factories Act. Except in one or two workshops, overtime is not compulsory, nor is it necessary to make it so because workers themselves are anxious to work overtime for the extra earnings they get.

Wage periods.—The wage period in the case of all the units chosen for investigation was the calendar month. In the smaller workshops, wages were paid within the seventh of the next month and in the larger workshops by the 10th according to the provision of the Payment of Wages Act.

iv. *Kerosene Tinning and Packing*

Wage-rates.—The rates of wages for different categories of workers in the three sampled units investigated are given in Table 100.

TABLE 100.

Rates of Wages for different occupations in Kerosene Tinning etc. (1944).

Occupation.	Burmah-Shell.		Caltex.		Standard Vacuum.	
	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum	Maximum.	Maximum.	Minimum.
	Rs. as. p.	Rs. as. p.	Rs. as. p.	Rs. as.p.	Rs. as. p.	Rs. as. p.
Coolies-Women	0-12- 0	1- 2- 0	—	—	0-12- 0	1- 2- 0
Coolies-Boys	0-12- 0	1- 0- 0	—	—	0-12- 0	1 0- 0
Appentices	1- 0- 0	2- 0- 0	1- 0- 0	2- 0- 0	—	—
Cleaners	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0
Coolies-Men	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0
Asst. Carpenters	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	—	—	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0
Asstt. Fitters	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0
Asstt. Turners	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	—	—	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0
Fillers or Filling operators	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0
Examiners	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0	—	—
Testers	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0	—	—	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0
Filling Machine Operators	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0	—	—	—	—
Furnacemen (Bolt heating)	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0	—	—	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0
Machinemen (others)	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0
Solder-makers	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0	—	—	1- 2- 0	1-10- 0
Oilers|Beltmen	1- 2- 0	1-12- 0	—	—	1- 2- 0	1-12- 0
Horn Press men	1- 3- 0	1-11- 0	1- 3- 0	1-11- 0	1- 3- 0	1-11- 0
Stencillers	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0
Hammermen	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0	—	—	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0
Holders	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0	—	—	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0
Coopers	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0
Ballymen	1- 4- 0	1-14- 0	—	—	1- 4- 0	1-14- 0
Packers	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0	—	—	1- 4- 0	1-12- 0
Holderman|Solder Machine operators	1- 4- 6	1-13- 0	1- 4- 6	1-13- 0	1- 4- 6	1-13- 0
Squeezers	1- 4- 6	1-12- 6	—	—	1- 4- 6	1-12- 6
Firemen	1- 6- 0	1-14- 0	—	—	1- 6- 0	1-14- 0
Tankwagon Fitters	1- 8- 0	2- 2- 0	1- 8- 0	2- 2- 0	1- 8- 0	2- 2- 0
Rivettrs	1- 8- 0	3- 8- 0	—	—	1- 8- 0	3- 8- 0
Boilmermakers	1- 8- 0	3- 8- 0	—	—	1- 8- 0	3- 8- 0
Caulkers Blacksmiths	1- 8- 0	4- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	4- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	4- 0- 0

TABLE 100.

Tinsmiths	1- 8- 0	3- 8- 0	1- 8- 0	3- 8- 0	1- 8- 0	3- 8- 0
Carpenters	1- 8- 0	4- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	4- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	4- 0- 0
Engine-drivers	1- 8- 0	3 8- 0	—	—	1- 8- 0	3- 8- 0
Fitters	1- 8- 0	3- 8- 0	1- 8- 0	3- 8- 0	1- 8- 0	3- 8- 0
Painters	1- 8- 0	3- 2- 0	1- 8- 0	3- 2- 0	1- 8- 0	3- 2- 0
Muccadus/overseers	1-10- 0	3- 0- 0	1-10- 0	3- 0- 0	1-10- 0	3- 0- 0
Wiremen	2- 0- 0	4- 0- 0	2- 0- 0	4- 0- 0	2- 0- 0	4- 0- 0
Masons	2- 0- 0	3- 8- 0	2- 0- 0	3- 8- 0	2- 0- 0	3- 8- 0
Pump Drivers	2- 8- 0	5- 0- 0	—	—	2- 8- 0	5- 0- 0
Spray Painters	2- 8- 0	3-10- 0	—	—	2- 8- 0	5- 0- 0
Welders	2- 8- 0	5- 0- 0	2- 8- 0	5- 0- 0	2- 8- 0	5- 0- 0
Trade Learners	1- 0- 0	2- 0- 0	—	—	2- 8- 0	—
A.R.P. Crew	—	—	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	—	—
Asstt. Painters	—	—	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0	1- 0- 0	1- 8- 0
Boiler Attendants	—	—	2- 0- 0	3- 0- 0	—	—
Milling Machine Operators.	—	—	—	—	1- 8- 0	5- 0- 0
Die engravers.	—	—	—	—	1- 8- 0	5- 0- 0

The rates of wages for the occupations are the same in all the three concerns as they were fixed as a result of an Adjudicator's award. The schedule of Minimum/Maximum rates has been introduced from 1st January 1943.

Dearness allowance, Bonus and Overtime.—A dearness allowance of Rs. 3 per month was granted to the workers in the Burmah-Shell and Caltex Companies from 1st January 1940 and 1st April 1940 respectively and it was raised to Rs. 5 per mensem on 1st July 1941 and 1st January 1941 respectively. Subsequently both the companies brought their dearness allowance in conformity with the Bombay Millowners' Association scales. The dearness allowance in the Standard-Vacuum Company was based on the cost of living index from the very start. In July 1944 the dearness allowance was Rs. 1-3-0 per day. In the Burmah-Shell Company absence of more than 4 days in a month disqualifies a worker for full rate of dearness allowance. On October 6, 1942 in respect of the Trade Dispute in the Caltex and Standard Vacuum Companies, the Adjudicator awarded a bonus of one-twelfth of the total earnings, (excluding dearness allowance) received by each workman of the company during the whole of the year. Accordingly all the three concerns give a bonus of 1/12th of all earnings in a year from the 1st January 1942. Work in excess of 8½ hours on week-days and 5½ hours on Saturdays is paid for at 1½ times the ordinary rate of pay. Overtime work is compulsory in the Burmah-Shell and Standard-Vacuum factories, while it was stated that in the Caltex Company so far no worker had refused to work overtime. Overtime is recorded in the muster roll or the time card of the worker and is open to inspection.

vi. *Dockyards.*

All the dockyards have minimum and maximum rates of wages for each occupation and some have different rates in the same occupation. Increments within the maximum and minimum limits are generally given annually. Nearly all the workers in the dockyards are time-rated. Wages are usually reckoned at daily rates, except in the Vizagapatam Port Dockyard where skilled workers are given monthly pay. Rates of wages vary from centre to centre and even from one dockyard to another in the same centre. In the Bombay dockyards, 51 per cent of the workers earn between Rs. 2 and Rs. 3; 31 per cent between Rs. 3 and Rs. 4; and 18 per cent between Rs. 4 and Rs. 5 per day. In the Calcutta dockyards, 15 per cent earn below Rs. 1|8|-; 45 per cent between Rs. 1|8|- and Rs. 2|8|-; and 40 per cent between Rs. 2|8|- and Rs. 3-0-6 per day. In Karachi, 33 per cent earn between Re. 1 and Rs. 2; 31 per cent between Rs. 2 and Rs. 3; 26 per cent between Rs. 3 and Rs. 4; and 10 per cent over Rs. 4 per day. In Cochin, 30.5 per cent earn below Re. 1|- 68 per cent between Re. 1 and Rs. 2; and 1.5 per cent between Rs. 2 and Rs. 2-8-0 per day. In the Scindia shipyard at Vizagapatam, 82 per cent earn below Re. 1; 3 per cent between Rs. 2 and Rs. 3; and 15 per cent between Rs. 2 and Rs. 2-8-0 per day. In the Vizagapatam Port dockyard, 69 per cent earn below Re. 1; 17 per cent between Re. 1 and Rs. 2; and 14 per cent between Rs. 2 and Rs. 2-4-0 per day. All the dockyards give dearness allowance to their workers, some on a daily basis and some on a monthly rate. Only in four dockyards in Bombay is dearness allowance related to the cost of living index number. In some of the dockyards in Calcutta the workers lose the dearness allowance altogether if they remain absent beyond a certain number of days in the wage period. The dearness allowance paid is not commensurate with the increase in the cost of living. During War time, four dockyards in Bombay have been paying a bonus equal to 1|12th of the total earnings of the workers. Some dockyards in Karachi also give bonus at the discretion of the Directors. The wage period in Bombay, Karachi and Vizagapatam is a calendar month. In Calcutta it is a month in one dockyard, a fort night in four, and a week in the rest. In the Cochin dockyard wages are paid every week.

CHAPTER VIII.

WAGES AND EARNING—II.

In this Chapter, we shall now survey the position as regards wages and earnings in certain other factory industries as well as unregulated factory industries and in important groups of industries such as Transport Services, Plantations and "Miscellaneous." We shall then proceed to discuss important issues like standardisation of wages, construction of cost of living indices, and future wage poicy.

I—*Cement Industry.*

A Wage Census was conducted in 13 cement factories covering about 15,000 or 75 per cent of the total employed in the industry. It is noticeable that although the bulk of production and sales of cement are controlled by a single combine, there is little or no standardization either in regard to the nomenclature of occupations or in regard to wages even in different units belonging to the same company. Owing to the shortage of unskilled labour during the last two or three years, many of the cement factories have altered their basic wage rates, particularly for unskilled labour. These increases have varied generally from 5 to 20 per cent in the case of most of the factories, although in one case it was reported that the increases were as high as 20 to 50 per cent. The following table gives the frequency of wages and earnings in the two main groups of the industry, namely, the Associated Cement Companies, Ltd., and Dalmia Cement Ltd.,

TABLE 101.

Frequency Distribution of Wages and Earnings in the Main Groups.

	Basic Wages.		Net Earnings.	
	Dalmias	A.C.C.I.	Dalmias	A.C.C.I.
	(% of workers to total).		(% of workers to total).	
Under annas 8	11.94	42.4	—	3.1
As. 8 and under annas 10	34.70	14.9	4.3	25.9
As. 10 and under annas 12	10.72	10.9	—	—
As. 12 and under Rs. 1|8	35.26	23.7	73.5	56.1
Rs. 1|8 and above	7.38	8.1	22.2	14.9
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

It will be seen that so far as basic wages are concerned, the largest concentration is in the group under as. 8 in the case of the Associated Cement Companies, Ltd., while it is in the groups annas 8 to annas 10 in the case of Dalmia Cement Ltd. The Dalmia have also a slightly larger percentage in the wage group annas 12 to Rs. 1-8-0. An examination of the earnings of the workers reveals that while 29 per cent of the operatives in the A.C.C.I. factories are in the group under annas 12, all the Dalmia operatives are in a higher earning group than this. The lowest wage level prevails in the factory at Lakheri, the one at Coimbatore being a close second. In these two centres the wages of nearly 60 per cent of the workers do not exceed annas eight per day. The basic daily wage rates for men and women in these two centres are annas seven and annas four respectively. Sind has the highest wage level where in the two factories studied 58.8 per cent of the workers are found in the wage group annas 12 to annas 14 per day. We did not notice any uniformity regarding either the policy or the scale for the payment of dearness allowance as between the different factories, nor is the allowance linked

to any official cost of living index number except in Coimbatore and in Guntur. In one factory, dearness allowance is paid in kind only. The amount of dearness allowance in cement factories comes to as. 5 to as. 8 per day per rupee of the basic wages in the case of daily-rated workers in most factories. Speaking generally, quarry workers get no separate dearness allowance but their wages have been revised to allow for the increase in the cost of living. In the industry as a whole, 61.4 per cent. of the total workers have an earning of less than one rupee per day, slightly over one-third being in the earning group as. 8 to as. 12.

II—*Match Industry.*

In the Match Industry, there is no standardization of wages; nor does one find the same rates of wages being paid in different units belonging to the same company. The nomenclatures of occupations vary from factory to factory and it is a matter of considerable difficulty to compare the wage rates and earnings in different occupations of the industry. Table 102 shows the frequency of wages and earnings in the industry in different centres.

TABLE 102.

Frequency of Wages and Earnings of Workers employed in the Match Factories surveyed in 8 centres in India.

Centre	Below annas 12				As. 12 but less than Re. 1				Re. 1 but less than Rs. 1/8			
	Basic Wages		Earnings		Basic Wages		Earnings		Basic Wages		Earnings	
	No. of Workers	% to total	No. of workers	% to total	No. of workers	% to total	No. of workers	% to total	No. of workers	% to total	No. of workers	% to total
Bengal (Calcutta) ...	872	43.1	251	12.5	221	11.6	639	31.9	618	30.7	297	14.8
Bombay	177	12.6	147	10.4	512	36.3	59	4.2	612	43.2	76	5.4
Madras (a) Tiruvattiyur ...	6	0.9	...	...	132	19	10	1.3	499	71.9	409	60
(b) Ramnad ...	530	99.6	524	96.6	2	0.4	16	3.0	...	...	2	0.4
United Provinces (Bareilly)	121	24.1	...	...	251	53.7	2	0.8	105	22.0	148	31.5
Punjab (Lahore) ...	271	71.9	30	7.7	67	17.5	16	4.0	26	6.7	158	43.3
Central Provinces ...	217	92.4	217	92.3	9	3.9	8	3.5	8	3.4	8	3.4
Mysore	192	88.9	179	82.9	15	7.0	18	8.3	8	3.7	13	6

TABLE 102—*continued.*

Centre	Rs. 1/8 but less than Rs. 2				Rs. 2 and over			
	Basic Wages		Earnings		Basic Wages		Earnings	
	No. of workers	% to total	No. of workers	% to total	No. of workers	% to total	No. of workers	% to total
Bengal (Calcutta)	276	13.7	562	28	19	0.9	257	12.8
Bombay	75	5.3	303	21.4	38	2.7	829	58.6
Madras (a) Tiruvattiyur	50	6.9	233	33.1	19	1.3	45	5.6
(b) Ramnad	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Provinces (Bareilly) ...	1	0.2	313	66.7	...	...	5	1.0
Punjab (Lahore)	6	1.7	109	26.3	15	2.2	72	18.7
Central Provinces	...	...	1	0.4	1	0.4	1	0.4
Mysore	...	...	2	0.9	1	0.5	4	1.9

The table shows that the highest wage rates are paid in Bombay, Madras and Bareilly. Quite a large percentage of the workers in Calcutta are in the wage groups annas 12 and below. In Mysore, the Central Provices and in the Ramnad district of the Madras Province, almost the whole of the labour force has a basic wage below annas 12 per day. Owing to the high rate of dearness allowance prevailing in Bombay, over 58 per cent of the workers there have daily earning of Rs. 2 and over. In Lahore, the percentage of such workers is 18.7 only. The earning figures for Madras must be viewed in the light of the fact that the workers there get a substantial portion of the dearness allowance in kind which explains why in spite of high basic wage level, there are not many workers in the earning category of Rs. 2 and over per day. There is no uniformity either in regard to the policy or the scale for the payment of dearness allowance in the industry or even as between different units in the same centre or in units in the different centres belonging to the same company. Thus, at Ambernath, in the WIMCO match factory, dearness allowance is paid at the rate of nearly Rs. 30 per month at a flat rate to all the operatives while in the Madras factory belonging to the same management only a nominal cash allowance of Rs. 0-1-4 per rupee is paid and the rise in the cost of living is mainly met by supplying food grains etc., to the workers at pre-war rates. Some factories pay no dearness allowance at all, while others pay as low a dearness allowance as annas two per rupee of earnings. The wages and earnings figures for Ramnad stand out as being exceptionally low. In this connection it may, however, be pointed out that the industry there is run more on the lines of a cottage industry than a factory industry and there are two towns in this district which are virtually match towns where most of the factory work is done by hand and also taken home for being completed by the members of the family. As agricultural pursuits have ceased to be remunerative, these towns are more or less dependent on these factories and this has resulted in the workers being forced to accept extraordinarily low rates of wages. Moreover, there are a considerable number of women and children employed in these factories.

III—*Paper Industry.*

Except in the case of the unit at Bhadravati, a wage census covering all the workers in other units sheduled for the *ad hoc* survey was conducted in selected occupations. The frequency of wages and earnings shows that 29 per cent of the workers in the units surveys get a daily basic wage of less than as. 8; 11.1 per cent of whom receive less than as. 6 per day. About 15 per cent get a daily basic wage of between as. 8 and as. 10; 25 per cent between as. 10 and as. 12; 12.4 per cent between as. 12 and as. 14; and the rest (i.e., 20.6 per cent more than as. 14. As regards net earnings, 16 per cent earn below as. 12; 19.5 per cent between as. 12 and as. 14; 18.5 per cent between as. 14 and Re. 1; 10.3 per cent between Re. 1 and Rs. 1-2-0; and 8.7 per cent between Rs. 1-2-0 and Rs. 1-4-0. The wage level appears to be the lowest in the factory in Orissa, where 60.69 per cent. of the workers are in receipt of a wage of less than as. 6 per day while the highest basic wage level seems to prevail in the factory at Titaghur where slightly over 50 per cent. of the workers are in the wage group as. 10 to as. 12 per day. Women workers in some units get as low a wage as as. 4 per day and one unit has adopted an ingenius system of paying only a nominal wage of one or two annas and

making up the wage to as. 8 by giving the standard rate of dearness allowance prevailing in that unit. There is no uniformity whatever in the payment of dearness allowance as between unit and unit and, on the whole, the scale of dearness allowance in this industry is very much lower than that prevailing in other industries. Only two units have linked the payment of dearness allowance with the cost of living index number. Three units in Bengal pay a dearness allowance of as. 1½ per rupee *plus* Rs. 5 to Rs. 8 per month, while the fourth unit pays 15 per cent of the wages by way of dearness allowance. The highest rate of dearness allowance appears to be paid at Saharanpur where a cooly getting about as. 8 earns as much as Rs. 1-4-0 per day. In some units the dearness allowance is paid at a flat rate which varies from Rs. 7-8-0 to Rs. 12 per month. Except for the units in Bengal and the Paper mill in Rajahmundry, the others have been paying a profit bonus equivalent to one or two month's wages. The Bengal units sell food grains at concession rates in addition to paying a dearness allowance in cash. The value of this concession, however, works out to slightly over a rupee per week. The wage period is generally a month and wages are paid within a week or 10 days of their becoming due.

IV—*Bidi, Cigar and Cigarette Industries.*

The bulk of workers employed in the Bidi and Cigar industries are rollers who are paid on a piece basis. Only packing, labelling and store work are paid at time rates, although labelling in many centres is also paid by the piece. Children employed in the Bidi and Cigar industries are generally paid on a daily basis. Such children get on an average 4 to 6 annas a day in Bengal and South India, while they get 3 to 4 annas in the C.P. The piece rate for making 1,000 bidis varies from centre to centre and sometimes from factory to factory in the same centre. In the Central Provinces, it varies from as. 13 to Re. 1; in South India, from Rs. 1-2-0 to Rs. 1-4-0; in Bombay Province, from as. 12 to Rs. 1-4-0; and in Bengal from Rs. 1-1-0 to Rs. 1-14-0. Women employed in the factories are generally paid at the same rates as men but in the case of home workers the rate is lower by as. 2 in the Central Provinces, Bompay and Mysore, by as. 4 in Bengal and by as. 8 to as. 10 in the Madras Province. As compared to 1939, the rates for bidi making have gone up by about 100 per cent. The rates of wages for making 1,000 cigars vary from Rs. 1-4-0 for the inferior varieties to Rs. 5 or Rs. 6 for the superior cigars. In the Cigarette industry, wages are paid generally on a time basis, the average daily rate being as. 12 to Re. 1 although skilled workers such as machine operators receive from Rs. 3 to Rs. 3-12-0 per day. In the Bidi making industry, there are various kinds of deductions made from the workers' wages. These are particularly common in the Central Provinces especially in the Bandara District and in South India. Bidi workers do not get any dearness allowance or bonus. Cigar workers in South India, however, are generally paid dearness allowance at the rate of as. 5 in the rupee of wages earned while some cigar factories give bonus as well. All the cigarette factories give dearness allowance and bonuses. In the Central Provinces, the average daily production of bidis per worker is about 800 and his earnings for the month vary from Rs. 13-10-0 to about Rs. 21. In South India the monthly average earnings of bidi workers came to Rs. 18-4-0 in Madras, Rs. 21 in Mangalore and Rs. 29-3-0

in Tinnevelly, In Bombay, on an average, the earnings of men are between Rs. 30 and Rs. 40 and of women between Rs. 16 and Rs. 30. The average earnings of cigar makers in South India are from Rs. 27-12-0 to Rs. 36-13-0.

V—*Carpet Weaving Industry.*

The following summary table shows the monthly wages of different types of weavers in important centres of the industry:—

TABLE 103.

Weavers' Wages in Important Centres.

Occupation.	Mirzapur	Srinagar	Amritsar.	Gwalior
—	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Master weavers	40 to 50	24 to 35	46 to 50	20 to 50
Adult weavers	15 to 28	12 to 19	10|8 to 46	20 to 50
Child weavers	—	1|4 to 5	—	8|-|8 to 8|9|0

These figures are not strictly comparable between centre and centre as the quality of the carpets manufactured at the different centres varies although at Amritsar and Srinagar on the one hand and at Gwalior and Mirzapur on the other, the qualities are more or less the same. It will be noticed that wages are the lowest in Srinagar. In Mirzapur, wages of certain classes of piece-workers such as spinners and sorters are paid by the *Dukandars* on demand. Normally, these workers keep on taking advances against their accounts which are closed monthly. The wages of weavers and clippers are generally paid on the completion of each individual carpet. The wages of other classes of workers such as designers are paid monthly. In respect of daily paid employees in some firms, the wage period is normally a month. At Amritsar wages are paid fortnightly. In Srinagar and Gwalior a considerable number of children of tender ages are employed. They do not get any remuneration in the initial stages but as they pick up the rudiments of the trade they receive about one to three annas per day. The Master-weavers who are piece-rated work in their own homes at Mirzapur and in the factory itself in the other centres.

VI—*Coir Mats and Matting.*

The following table shows the average wages of men, women and children in important occupations in the coir mats and matting industry.—

TABLE 104.

Weighted Averages of Daily Wages and Net Earnings in important Occupations.

Occupation.	Average daily wages.			Average daily net earnings.		
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Children.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Spooling	—	0- 5- 4	0- 4- 8	—	0- 9- 4	0- 8- 2
Beaming	0- 8- 5	—	0- 3- 8	0-14- 9	—	0- 5- 7
Carpet Weaving	1- 3- 6	—	—	2- 2- 2	—	—
Matting Weaving	0-14- 3	—	—	1- 7-11	—	—
Mats Weaving	0-11-11	—	—	1- 3- 5	—	—
Mats Shearing	0-12- 2	—	—	1- 5- 4	—	—

(TABLE 104—*contd.*)

Occupation.	Average daily wages			Avrage daily net earnings.		
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Children.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Mats Binding	0- 9- 4	—	—	0-15- 8	—	—
Braiding	—	0- 5- 9	—	—	0-11- 1	—
Stencilling	1- 3- 1	—	—	2- 0-11	—	—
Matting Stitching	0- 9-11	—	—	1- 1- 3	—	—
Dyeing	0-11- 8	0- 6- 8	—	1- 4- 5	0-11- 8	—
Coiling & Rehanking	0- 9- 8	0- 5- 1	—	1- 0-11	0- 8-11	—
Tent Components	1- 0- 2	0- 8- 5	—	1-12- 4	0-11- 3	—

An analysis of the frequency of wages and earnings shows that the mode for men in respect of average daily wages lies in the group as. 12 to less than as. 14, for women in the group as. 6 to less than as. 8 and for children in the group less than as. 4. In regard to daily earnings, the modal groups are Rs. 1-4-0 to less than Rs. 1-8-0 for men, as. 8 to less than as. 12 for women and less than as. 8 for children. Taking the industry as a whole, it is seen that the basic wages of 25.8 per cent of the workers are less than as. 8 per day. The data in respect of earnings show that only 6.5 of the workers fall in this group. The Board of Conciliation of Trade Disputes in the Mats and Matting Industry in Travancore, which reported in 1939, has stated that the worker' standard of living was low. Although since the war earnings of the workers have gone up, they have not kept pace with the rise in the cost of living with the result that the worker's standard of living must have deteriorated considerably. In this connection it may also be stated that during the year 1943-1944 there was acute shortage of foodstuffs both in Cochin and in Travancore.

VII—*Tanneries.*

A large majority of the workers employed in tanneries are *chamars* belonging to the Scheduled Castes. In Madras, their wages vary, on an average, from as. 8 to as. 14 per day. In Cawnpore, the basic wages of the majority of the workers are as. 6 to as. 12 per day. Women, however, receive a basic wage of as. 4 only per day. In Calcutta the basic wage level is higher and all workers get, on an average, a basic wage of more than as. 8 per day. As regards earnings, in Madras the majority of piece-rate workers earn, on an average, between Re. 1 and Rs. 1-4-0 per day and time-workers from as. 12 to less than Re. 1 per day. In Cawnpore, owing to the liberal scale of dearness allowance which is being paid, the average net earnings of 75% of the workers are Rs. 1-8-0 and above. In fact, 32.7% of the workers earn, on an average, between Rs. 2-4-0 and over Rs. 2-8-0. Including allowances, time-workers in Calcutta earn from as. 14 to Rs. 1-1-11 and piece-workers who form over 85 per cent of the total earn from Rs. 1-8-0 to over Rs. 2 per day. Most of the tanneries pay dearness allowance to meet the increase in the cost of living. The rates of dearness allowance are the highest in Cawnpore. The following tables (Tables 105-110) give the average daily basic wages and earnings in important centres of the industry:—

TABLE 105.

Frequency Table for Average Daily Wages in Tanneries and Leather Goods Factories at Cawnpore.

Wage Group	Number and percentage of workers in specified wage groups												
	Men			Women			Total						
							Number			Percentage			
	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total
Less than 4 annas	...	...	...	...	34	34	...	34	34	...	0.5	0.4
From 4 As. to 0-5-11	...	324	324	...	...	...	...	324	324	...	4.7	3.1
„ 6 „ „ 0-7-11	49	1184	1233	...	...	...	49	1184	1233	1.6	17.1	12.1
„ 8 „ „ 0-9-11	57	1106	1163	...	...	...	57	1106	1163	1.9	15.9	11.6
„ 10 „ „ 0-11-11	243	888	1131	...	...	...	243	888	1131	7.9	12.8	11.4
„ 12 „ „ 0-13-11	34	2245	2279	...	...	...	34	2245	2279	1.1	32.4	22.8
„ 14 „ „ 0-15-11	19	189	208	...	...	...	19	189	208	0.6	2.7	2.1
„ Re. 1 to 1-1-11	140	565	705	...	...	...	140	565	705	4.6	8.2	7.2
„ Rs. 1/2 „ 1-3-11	369	98	467	...	...	...	369	98	467	12.0	1.4	4.7
„ „ 1/4 „ 1-7-11	157	196	353	...	...	...	157	196	353	5.1	2.8	3.5
„ „ 1/8 „ 1-11-11	313	19	334	...	...	...	315	19	334	10.3	0.3	3.3
„ „ 1/12 „ 1-15-11	959	48	1007	...	...	...	959	48	1007	31.2	0.7	10.2
Over Rs. 2/0/0	722	33	755	...	...	...	722	33	775	23.6	0.5	7.6
Total	3064	6895	9959	...	34	34	3064	6929	9993	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 106.

Frequency Table showing Average Net Earnings per day in Tanneries and Leather Goods Factories at Cawnpore.

Earnings Group	Number and percentage of workers.											
	Men			Women			Total Number			Total Percentage		
	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total
Less than 8 annas	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
From 8 As. to 0-11-11	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
„ 12 „ „ 0-15-11	...	364	361	...	...	...	...	361	1361	...	5.2	3.6
„ Re. 1 „ 1-3-11	2	1099	1101	...	34	34	2	1135	1435	0.1	16.4	11.4
„ Rs. 1/4 „ 1-7-11	98	1012	1110	...	...	...	98	1012	1110	3.2	14.6	11.1
„ Rs. 1/8 „ 1-11-11	265	819	1084	...	...	...	265	819	1084	8.6	11.8	10.8
„ Rs. 1/12 „ 1-15-11	44	2536	2580	...	...	...	44	2536	2580	1.4	36.6	25.8
„ „ 2 „ 2-3-11	163	293	456	...	...	...	163	293	456	5.3	4.2	4.6
„ „ 2/4 „ 2-7-11	503	553	1056	...	...	...	503	553	1056	16.4	8.0	10.6
Over Rs. 2/8/-	1989	222	2211	...	...	...	1989	222	2211	65.0	3.2	22.1
Total	3064	6895	9959	...	34	34	3064	6929	9993	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 107.

Frequency Table showing Average Daily Wages in Tanneries and Leather Goods Factories at Madras.

Wage Group	Number and percentage of workers in specified groups											
	Men			Women			Total					
							Number			Percentage		
	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total
Under As. 4	...	...	...	...	119	119	...	119	119	...	9.2	5.9
From As. 4 to 0-5-11 ...	...	...	...	...	3	3	...	3	3	...	0.2	0.1
From As. 6 to 0-7-11 ...	7	66	73	...	...	...	7	66	73	1.0	5.1	3.6
From As. 8 to 0-9-11 ...	92	798	890	...	...	...	92	798	890	12.5	62.0	44.0
From As. 10 to 0-11-11 ...	101	242	343	...	...	...	101	242	343	13.8	18.8	17.0
From As. 12 to 0-13-11 ...	425	38	463	...	...	...	425	38	643	58.0	3.0	22.9
From As. 14 to 0-15-11 ...	...	13	13	...	...	...	...	13	13	...	1.0	0.6
From Re. 1 to 1-1-11 ...	...	9	9	...	...	...	...	9	9	...	0.7	0.5
From Rs. 1/2 to 1-3-11 ...	108	...	108	...	...	...	108	...	108	14.7	...	5.4
From Rs. 1/4 to 1-7-11 ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
From Rs. 1/8 to 1-11-11 ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
From Rs. 1/12 to 1-15-11 ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Over Rs. 2-0-0 ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total ...	733	1166	1899	...	122	122	733	1288	2021	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 108.

Frequency Table showing Average Net Earnings per day in Tanneries and Leather Goods Factories at Madras.

Earnings Group	Number and percentage of workers in specified groups											
							Total					
	Men			Women			Number			Percentage		
	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total
Under As. 8	...	2	2	...	...	...	...	2	2	...	0.1	0.1
From As. 8 to 0-11-11	16	156	172	...	122	122	16	278	294	2.2	21.6	14.5
From As. 12 to 0-15-11	61	589	650	...	...	...	61	589	650	8.3	45.7	32.2
From Re. 1 to 1-3-11	513	404	917	...	...	...	513	404	917	70.0	31.4	45.4
From Rs. 1/4 to 1-7-11	35	15	50	...	...	...	35	15	50	4.8	1.2	2.5
From Rs. 1/8 to 1-11-11 ...	108	...	108	...	...	...	108	...	108	14.7	...	4.3
From Rs. 1/12 to 1-15-11	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
From Rs. 2 to 2-3-11	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
From Rs. 2/4 to 2-7-11	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Over Rs. 2/8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total	733	1166	1899	...	122	122	733	1288	2021	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 109.

Average Daily Wages in Tanneries and Leather Goods Factories at Calcutta.

Wage group.	Number and percentage of workers in specified wage groups.					
	Men			Percentage of total.		
	Piece	Time	Total	Piec	Time	Total.
Less than 4 as.	—	—	—	—	—	—
From 4 as. to -|5|11	—	—	—	—	—	—
From 6 as. to -|7|11	—	—	—	—	—	—
From 8 as. to -|9|11	18	22	40	0.64	4.71	1.21
From 10 as. to -|11|11	2	86	88	0.07	18.42	2.69
From 12 as. to -|13|11	9	42	51	0.32	9.00	1.54
From 14 as. to -|15|11	13	115	128	0.46	24.63	3.88
From Re. 1 to Rs. 1|1|11	8	161	169	0.28	34.47	5.12
From Rs. 1|2 to Rs. 1|3|11	119	23	142	4.21	4.92	4.32
From Rs. 1|4 to Rs. 1|7|11	305	3	308	10.78	0.65	9.34
From Rs. 1|8 to Rs. 1|11|11	665	—	665	23.50	—	20.17
From Rs. 1|12 to Rs. 1|15|11	900	11	911	31.81	2.35	27.64
Over Rs. 2	790	4	794	27.93	0.85	24.09
Total	2,829	467	3,296	100	100	100

TABLE 110.

Average Net Earnings per day in Tanneries and Leather goods factories at Calcutta.

Earning group.	Number and percentage of Workers					
	Men			Percentage of total.		
	Piece	Time	Total	Piece	Time	Total.
Less than 8 Annas.	—	—	—	—	—	—
From 8 As. to -|11|11	18	—	18	0.64	—	0.5
From 12 As. to -|15-11	13	120	152	0.46	25.7	4.6
From Re. 1 to Rs. 1|3|11	23	268	291	0.82	57.4	8.8
From Rs. 1|4 to Rs. 1|7|11	1	33	34	0.03	7.1	1.0
From Rs. 1|8 to Rs. 1|11|11	249	28	277	8.80	6.0	8.4
From Rs. 1|12 to Rs. 1|15|11	735	2	737	25.98	0.4	22.2
From Rs. 2|- to Rs. 2|3|11	867	10	877	30.65	2.1	26.5
From Rs. 2|4 to Rs. 2|7|11	202	—	202	7.14	—	6.0
Over Rs. 2|8|-	721	6	727	25.48	1.3	22.0
Total	2,829	467	3,296	100	100	100

While in Cawnpore and Calcutta the wage period is a month, in Madras in the majority of the units it is a fortnight. Wages are paid promptly at the end of the wage period in all the three centres. Fines, as a rule, are not imposed nor are there any unauthorised deductions from wages.

VIII—*Potteries.*

Investigations in the pottery industry were carried out in Calcutta, Bangalore and Gwalior. Since 1942, the basic wage level in one centre of this industry has increased by 25% although, in stray cases, in the same centre it has gone up by 50 per cent. This was, however, due to the fact that the industry was largely a war-time development, particularly in Calcutta. In Bangalore, on the other hand, there has been no change in the basic wage rates. The rates of dearness allowance vary from

centre to centre and also in the different units in the same centre. In one unit, in Calcutta, the rate varied from Rs. 8 p.m. to Rs. 12 p.m. There is no uniformity in the payment of the allowance even for workers in the same occupation earning the same basic wages. In Bangalore, the rate in one unit was the same as that prescribed by the Mysore Government, while in the other it was dependent on attendance. The rate of dearness allowance at Gwalior varies frfom Rs. 5 to Rs. 8 p.m. according to income. A profit bonus is also being paid ranging from one month's wages in Calcutta and Bangalore to two months' wages in Gwalior. Basic wage rates are higher in Calcutta than in the other two centres of the indusry. In Calcutta, 33.5 per cent of the sampled workers were in receipt of a basic wage of less than Re. 1 per day, 44.6 per cent were in receipt of a wage between Re. 1 and Rs. 1-7-11 while 21.9 per cent earned a wage between Rs. 1-8-0 and Rs. 2-8-0 and over, the corresponding percentages for the samples in Bangalore and Gwalior being 94.7, 3.7, 1.6 and 95.1, 4.9 and nil respectively. It is noticeable that the percentage of those earning less than as. 8 per day in Bangalore was as high as 45.6, the corresponding percentage in Gwalior being 19.9. The following table classifies the earnings of workers in potteries in Calcutta, Bangalore and Gwalior according to the categories of earnings:—

TABLE 111.

Frequency Distribution of Earnings in Potteries.

Group.		Net Earnings.		
		Calcutta.	Bangaloe.	Gwalior.
Less than 4 annas	..	..	..	..
As. 4 to As. 5|11.	..	..	..	..
As. 6 to As. 7|11.	..	..	..	..
As. 8 to As. 9|11.	..	1.1	24.8	18.5
As. 10 to As. 11|11.	..	..	..	..
As. 12 to As. 13|11.	..	12.9	57.7	31.8
As. 14 to As. 15|11.	..	..	..	..
Re. 1 to Rs. 1|1|11.	..	29.5	0.4	33.5
Rs. 1|2 to Rs. 1|3|11.	..	..	..	..
Rs. 1|4|- to Rs. 1|7|11.	..	26.3	9.0	11.7
Rs. 1|8 to Rs. 1|11|11.	..	14.0	4.8	..
Rs. 1|12 to Rs. 1|15|11.	..	3.9	2.1	4.5
Rs. 2|- to Rs. 2|3|11.	..	4.5	0.4	..
Rs. 2|4 to Rs. 2|8|-.	..	4.7	0.7	..
Over Rs. 2|8|-.	..	3.1	0.1	0.1
Total	..	100.0	100.0	100.0

In Calcutta, the workers are paid either weekly or fortnightly while the wage period in Bangalore and Gwalior is the calender month. Fines are not usually imposed and were noticed only in one unit each in Calcutta, Bangalore and Gwalior. In the first case if a worker showed improvement the amount of fine is returned to him while in the remaining cases the amount is credited to the State Treasuries.

IX—*Printing Presses.*

In the printing presses, the increase in the cost of living of workers has been met by increases in basic wages, combination of allowances and

slight increase in the basic wages, and grant of war allowance without any change in basic wages. It is difficult to generalise about the level of wages in printing presses because there is a bewildering variation from place to place from press to press and occupation to occupation in the wages paid. On the whole, the more skilled occupations like those of readers, operators, casters and compositors are comparatively better paid. On the other hand, ballers, folders, inkers, distributors and coolies are the lowest paid among press operatives. In most of the occupations like those of compositors, readers and pressmen, the range of variation in the wages is extremely great. For instance, the maximum and minimum of compositors' wages and earnings are Rs. 166|6|- and Rs. 9-4-9 and Rs. 193-13-0 and Rs. 12-1-9 respectively. Similarly, the lowest paid reader gets about 1|13th of the wages of the highest paid reader. These differences are partly explained by the fact that there are differences in the age, seniority and efficiency of different workers similarly designated. The following table gives the weighted averages of wages and earnings in the different centres according to occupations.

TABLE 112.

Weighted Averages of Wages and Earnings in Printing Presses in 1944-45.

Occupation	Lahore		Simla		Delhi		Aligarh	
	Basic Wages	Net Earnings	Basic Wages	Net Earnings	Basic Wages	Net Earnings	Basic Wages	Net Earnings
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Compositors ...	51 0 3	63 6 5	50 7 11	105 9 0	44 11 6	63 4 6	25 11 10	35 10 11
Machinemen ...	46 8 10	55 1 3	37 3 9	65 15 0	39 3 10	56 3 0	40 3 2	55 1 11
Binders	22 6 7	40 0 11	33 7 7	64 6 5	24 9 3	45 9 9	19 3 11	33 0 10
Readers	80 11 4	102 1 8	131 7 0	194 13 0	93 11 4	125 11 9	38 2 3	47 11 7
Copyholders ...	31 9 10	46 2 8	36 15 5	75 14 2	35 14 10	53 3 9	...	...
Lino-operators ...	86 10 5	103 0 7	96 6 0	153 3 0	94 6 1	132 11 6	...	...
Pressmen ...	36 11 2	45 9 1	...	...	30 10 3	34 13 2	28 7 8	41 12 6
Distributors ...	28 14 3	39 8 3	...	...	26 13 4	41 7 11	...	...
Inkers	18 15 11	28 7 10	19 9 0	34 15 7	19 1 11	29 5 3	27 9 3	42 7 5
Papermen or Feeders	25 5 3	34 3 2	...	...	27 5 5	34 7 2	13 6 6	18 10 7
Mono-operators ...	...	...	94 4 6	144 11 6	...	...	...	...
Impositors ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Foremen ...	64 13 9	82 1 7	...	...	56 1 1	76 7 5	71 8 11	88 14 2
Coolies	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Folders and Envelope makers, etc. ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13 11 1	22 6 9
Treadlemen ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mono-casters ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Forme carriers ...	...	...	17 4 4	37 11 1	...	...	...	...
Caster attendants ...	...	...	41 6 3	82 10 7	...	...	...	...
Packers	...	...	...	...	...	...	27 9 3	42 7 5
Gally-proofmen ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Wheelers ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rulers	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Stereocasters ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Type casters ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ballers	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

TABLE 112—*continued.*

Weighted Averages of Wages and Earnings in Printing Presses in 1444-45.

Occupation	Allahabad		Patna		Calcutta		Madras		Bombay	
	Basic Wages	Net Earnings	Basic Wages	Net Earnings	Basic Wages	Net Earnings	Basic Wages	Net Earnings	Basic Wages	Net Earnings
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Compositors ...	28 11 7	42 8 0	46 15 9	49 0 4	34 12 3	50 8 8	25 9 10	35 9 11	54 7 11	68 8 8
Machinemen ...	31 9 5	44 13 0	32 10 6	39 5 5	36 2 9	57 2 2	29 14 7	41 14 2	46 0 1	66 11 0
Binders	15 7 0	27 2 9	21 0 4	29 4 10	25 8 0	41 13 3	22 12 5	32 15 0	34 14 7	52 13 0
Readers	100 5 10	130 5 7	83 4 8	91 9 6	132 3 3	150 3 6	30 12 7	43 0 0	82 9 2	11 2 7
Copy holders ...	29 11 10	41 6 4	39 12 0	50 12 0	44 8 6	61 12 10	...	...	39 11 5	61 4 4
Lino-operators ...	...	...	77 4 5	96 5 4	106 0 6	134 13 7	74 1 2	97 0 3	112 2 7	139 3 0
Pressmen ...	16 0 3	29 15 8	22 8 7	29 2 2	24 10 7	38 6 0	...	...	41 0 4	64 15 8
Distributors ...	13 9 5	24 3 8	19 12 0	24 15 3	...	...	...	...	28 14 0	46 10 0
Inkers	...	...	...	...	27 15 6	43 13 11	...	...	...	...
Papermen or Feeders	19 2 0	31 10 6	...	...	23 12 7	40 13 4	...	...	...	...
Mono-operators ...	12 14 8	61 15 9	...	...	...	...	...	...	84 3 2	98 8 9
Impositors ...	17 10 8	30 7 10	...	...	...	...	35 0 2	35 10 11	...	...
Foremen ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Coolies	11 4 10	19 13 9	9 15 1	13 0 8	19 7 6	34 2 1	...	...	...	...
Folders and Envelope makers, etc. ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	26 7 4	43 0 4
Treadlemen ...	...	...	...	...	31 14 4	48 4 11	21 10 0	25 9 2	...	...
Mono Casters ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	85 7 0	92 3 9
Forme carriers ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Caster attendants ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Packers	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gally-Proof men ...	...	...	18 6 5	28 12 10	...	...	...	...	...	...
Wheelers ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	18 5 8	33 1 9	...	...
Rulers	...	...	...	...	...	...	21 11 6	34 3 5	...	...
Stereocasters ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	21 14 9	37 10 0	...	...
Type casters ..	...	...	...	...	...	...	29 11 0	42 11 0	...	...
Ballers	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	25 5 3	44 9 6

It will be noticed that as compared to basic wages, the earnings are very much higher in Simla. This is explained by the fact that the vast majority of workers are employed in the Government Press and are entitled to special allowances. The wage scales in Madras and Aligarh appear to be the lowest in the country. The wage period is generally the calendar month. Only casual and contract labour is paid daily. The wages are paid generally within 7 to 10 days of their becoming due, but there are instances in which they are withheld for a longer period. In the printing presses, advances are granted against earned wages to the operatives.

X—*Glass Industry.*

The general wage level in this industry as a whole has gone up by 100 per cent or more as compared to the pre-war period, although till 1942 wages did not show any appreciable increase. Blowers were the first to get considerable increases in their wages. Most of the concerns are paying consolidated wages but some have kept basic wages separate from dearness allowance. Blowers' wages in 1939 were about Rs. 45 per month, but now they are earning about Rs. 100 per month. In some cases they earn much more. The earnings of blowers in factories equipped with semi-automatic blowing machines are about Rs. 60 per month as these machines can be easily worked by less skilled operatives. Helpers, neck-makers, firemen, etc., earn Rs. 65 to Rs. 70 per month. Before the war, their average earnings seldom exceeded Rs. 30 per month. Unskilled male workers who used to earn Rs. 10 to 12 in 1939 get at present about Rs. 30 to Rs. 35 per month. Similarly, the average wages of women workers have increased from Rs. 8 in 1939 to about Rs. 24 per month in 1944. In the glass bangle factories at Firozabad, wages have increased by 150 to 200 per cent. Here, the employers agreed with the local Mazdoor Sabha in 1939 to pay minimum wages to certain specified categories. These rates were further increased in 1943. The current rates of wages are, however, considerably above those laid down in the agreement. *Tarwalas* and *belanwalas* are the highest paid workers in these factories. The bigger glass manufacturing firms pay separate dearness allowances. Some of them pay at a flat rate while others have slab or percentage rates. The glass works at Balwali, in the United Provinces, pays dearness allowance of Rs. 15 per month to all its employees while another concern in the same province pays dearness allowance at annas 10 in the rupee. Some of the factories in Bombay have not raised their basic wages. In the Punjab, basic wages have gone up considerably and a dearness allowance is paid at two annas in the rupee. Usually regularity in attendance is insisted upon as a condition precedent to the payment of the full allowance, and in case absence exceeds two or three days in a month, a *pro rata* deduction is made. The period of wage payment in most of the factories is a month and wages are paid by the 7th of the following month.

XI—*Chemical Industry.*

In this industry, considerable variations in wage rates and earnings exist not only in the same Province but also in the same occupation. The basic wage structure has remained practically the same in most of the concerns but dearness allowances are being paid to meet the increased cost of living. In Bengal, particularly, there is no uniformity in the scale of dearness allowance and no attempt has been made to relate the allowance to the increase in the cost of living. It was found that of the concerns

investigated, 13 in Bombay and 5 in Baroda pay no dearness allowance at all. Three concerns in Bengal and one in Madras have both given the dearness allowance and a wage increase. In Baroda and Bangalore dearness allowance is paid at a flat rate. Amongst the concerns in Bombay, 11 grant dearness allowance on the basis adopted by the Mill-owners' Association, Bombay or Ahmedabad. The following table shows the position regarding wages and earnings in the chemical industry in the country:—

TABLE 113.

Wages and Earnings (in Rs. per month).

Type of Labour	Bombay		Bengal		Baroda		Bangalore	
	W	E	W	E	W	E	W	E
Skilled male ...	23 to 70	35 to 111	26 to 33	40 to 45	22 to 118	44 to 160	25 to 50	33 to 38
Unskilled male	16 to 25	22 to 49	18 to 20	25 to 27	14 to 22	32 to 39	12	19
Female ...	14 to 22	26 to 47	...	...	13 to 17	25 to 42	10	17

W—Wages, E—Earnings.

Nearly one-third of the factories investigated granted profit bonus amounting usually to two to three months' wages. Other bonuses such as Regularity Bonus, Loyalty Bonus, Secial Temporary Allowance, Night Work Allowance, etc., are also granted to workers in a few concerns. In a majority of cases the wage period is a month but in 8 concerns payments were made fortnightly. Weekly payment is also prevalent in some cases and in a few more than one wage period is adopted, for example, weekly for daily-rated workers and monthly for permanent workers. In a concern in Baroda, the payment is daily. Fining is common but not excessive.

XII—*Shellac Industry.*

From the point of view of wage payment, the five main categories of workers to be dealt with are: (1) Melters, (2) Washers and Crushers, (3) Coolies, (4) *Kamins* and (5) Tailors. Melters include *karigar, belwaya* and *pherwaya. Kamins* are women workers engaged in various processes. Tailors or *khalifas* make the cloth bags. In the principal centres of the industry, located in Bihar, wages have risen by as much as 150 per cent. at Balrampur and by about 95 per cent at Jhalda as compared to the pre-war period. The *karigar* and his helpers are paid jointly and the wages are shared by them roughly in the proportion of 50 for *karigar*, 35 for *balwaya* and 15 for *pherwaya*. The joint daily earning is about Rs. 3. In the washing and crushing sections also, wages have gone up considerably. The wage level of coolies and women workers, however, ranges from as. 5 to as. 12 per day in spite of the rise in the cost of living. In Bengal, the joint wages of melters are somewhat lower, being Rs 2-14-0 per maund of seedlac. The increase in the joint wages has been of the order of 119 per cent. since the war, although it is about 60 per cent only in the case

of seed cleaners and coolies. In Gondia, an important centre of the industry in the Central Provinces, the joint wage for melters is Rs. 3-4-6 per maund in the case of shellac and Rs. 3-8-0 in the case of button lac. This is divided between the three parties, *karigar, belwaya* and *pherwaya* in the proportion of 47 : 38 : 15. The pre-war joint rate was Rs. 1-12-0 per maund which shows that the wages have gone up by about 88 per cent. The wage rate for coolies which used to be four annas has gone up to eight or ten annas or by 100 or 150 per cent. In Mirzapur, in the United Provinces, the joint, wage of melters is Rs. 3 which is divided as follows: *karigar,* Rs. 1-6-0; *bellwaya,* Rs. 1-2-0; and *pherwaya,* as. 8. The pre-war joint rate was Rs. 1-8-0 which shows that there has been an increase of 100 per cent.

XIII—*Sugar.*

Except in certain factories in Gorakhpur and Darbhanga, the basic wages in the Sugar Industry have remained more or less constant as compared to the pre-war period. Almost all factories have, however, compensated the workers for the increase in the cost of living by the grant of dearness allowance. Contract labour which is employed mainly in the unloading of cane and loading of sugar bags, generally earns 5 to 10 per cent. less than the workers directly employed by the factories. With the exception of Gorakhpur, the basic wage does not fall below as. 4 per day in any centre. In Champaran, Darbhanga and Madras, there are some workers whose basic wages are between as 4 and as. 6 and in Darbhanga the modal basic wage also falls within this group. In the other centres, the wages of the majority of the workers are between as. 6 and as. 8 per day. The workers in Madras are fairly equally divided into two wage groups, namely, as. 6 to as. 8 and as. 8 to as. 10. As regards the net earnings of the workers, these are the lowest in Eastern U.P. and orthern Bihar, being between as. 8 to as. 12 per day. In Meerut and Ahmednagar, the model earning group is as. 12 but less than Re. 1. On the other hand, in Madras, the model earnings are between Re. 1 and Rs. 1-4-0. The following table (Table 114) shows the basic wages and earnings in the sampled centres of the industry:—

TABLE 114.

Frequency of Basic Wages and Earnings in Sugar Factories.

Income Group	Ahmednagar		Meerut		Gorakhpur		Champaran		Darbhanga		Madras	
	Basic Wages %	Net earnings %	Basic Wages %	Net earnings %	Basic Wages %	Net earnings %	Basic Wages %	Net earnings %	Basic Wages %	Net earnings %	Basic Wages %	Net earnings %
Less than as. 6	...	...	...	...	17.5	0.2	69.3	0.5	19.0	0.4	1.4	...
6 as. but less than as. 8	45.90	...	44.8	...	69.0		14.2		65.2		37.2	...
8 as. but less than as. 12	40.02	...	29.2	...	5.1	83.6	7.6	82.1	9.5	86.6	48.4	26.6
12 as. but less than Re. 1/-	4.47	73.71	11.9	66.3	3.2	5.6	2.5	6.2	1.8	4.9	10.3	2.2
Re. 1/- but less than Rs. 1/4/- ...	.80	12.67	6.0	19.0	1.5	1.2	2.6	2.7	1.2	2.3	1.2	57.1
Rs. 1/4/- but less than Rs. 1/8/- ...	1.87	3.27	1.9	4.3	0.8	2.3	1.4	1.4	0.9	1.1	0.7	10.5
Rs. 1/8/- but less than Rs. 2/- ...	2.14	2.94	3.1	2.9	0.7	3.8	1.0	3.5	0.7	1.7	0.4	2.8
Rs. 2 and over	4.80	7.41	3.1	7.7	1.2	3.3	1.4	3.6	1.7	2.8	0.4	0.8

We found that the majority of the sampled units had adopted sliding scales of dearness allowance of which two each in Madras and Meerut varied with the official cost of living index numbers. Three of the units have adopted flat rates. The percentage of dearness allowance to wages varies from factory to factory. Generally, the higher the wages the lower the dearness allowance. In the lower wage categories, the allowance is as high as 100 per cent of wages at Champaran, 60 per cent. in Darbhanga and 75 per cent in Gorakhpur. In the higher categories it is 5% of wages in some cases, the normal rate varying between 12½% and 25%. Some of the sampled factories in the United Provinces and Bihar pay from one to three months' basic wages as profit bonus. A unit in Meerut pays a supplementary ration allowance of Rs. 6 p.m. The wage period for all categories of warkers in Darbhanga, Meerut and Gorakhpur is the calendar month and wages are paid within seven days of their becoming due. In Champaran the wage period for the daily paid staff is ten to fourteen days and wages are paid within three days of the expiry of the wage period. Similarly, in two units in Madras and one in Bombay the wage period for daily rated employees is a fortnight and wages are paid within four to seven days of their becoming due. It is understood that since the introduction of the Payment of Wages Act fining has gone down considerably and it is no longer an evil besetting workers in sugar factories.

XIV—*Cotton Ginning and Baling.*

In the cotton ginning and baling industry, where a considerable proportion of the employees are contractors' labourers, the wages paid to contract labour are almost the same and in some cases higher than those paid to employees engaged directly by the factory owners. As a result of shortage of unskilled labour in the country wage levels have gone up considerably as compared to the pre-war period. Most of the workers are engaged on a piece work basis. There are large variations in wages not only from district to district but also from factory to factory in the same centre according to the size and ownership of the concern. In this industry the wage level is the highest in Sind and Madras. The following table shows the range of earnings of unskilled workers in the different centres of the industry:—

TABLE 115

Range of Earnings of Unskilled Workers.

Province	Occupation	Daily average earnings. Rs. a. p.
C.P., Berar and Khandesh	Kapas pickers	1 3 0
	Gin Feeders	0 5 0
Bombay (Gujerat)	Kapas carriers	1 13 6
	Kapas pickers	0 13 3
Bombay (Hubli)	Lasher	1 14 0
	Gin feeder	0 7 0
Madras	Khalasi	2 8 0
	Kapas picker	0 7 0
Sind	Jholiwalla	2 5 6
	Yellow picker	0 12 3
Punjab	Unskilled	As. 6 to 12 (min.) As. 14 to Rs. 1-8-0 (max.)

Dearness allowance is paid generally only to the monthly paid staff. This is not based on any definite principle and only in one concern was it based on a cost of living index number. Out of the 98 units surveyed in C. P., Berar and Khandesh only 32 were paying dearness allowance. There is a large variation in the scale of the allowance which varies from Rs. 2 to Rs. 30 per month in some centres. In C. P. in a typical factory the rate of dearness allowance is Rs. 15 p.m. for those getting below Rs. 60 p.m. In Gujrat and Hubli no dearness allowance is paid, while in Sind two of the units were paying Rs. 14 to Rs. 15 to those in the lower categories of wages. Bonus is paid in very few factories and, wherever it is paid, it is restricted to monthly paid staff and is dependent on the profits earned. In the case of unskilled workers the wage period is generaly a week and for the technical staff a month Wages are generally promptly paid although in some cases they are paid on holidays. No cases came to our notice of unauthorised deductions from wages.

XV—*Rice Mill Industry.*

The wage rates of the workers in this industry are not based on any principle, but differ according to the skill and experience of the worker on the one hand and the employers' financial position on the other. There are no regular grades or scales of promotion even in the case of permanent or semi-permanent workers. As compared to the pre-war period the present wage rates have gone up in most of the centres In Madras, wage rates have gone up by 17.8 per cent and 36.3 per cent in the case of male and female coolies respectively. In Bihar wages of casual workers have gone up by about 300 per cent. In Orissa, wage rates of temporary workers have gone up by as. 2 per day. In Bombay, wage rates have gone up by about 100 per cent. In the case of piece-workers, the rate has gone up by nearly 100 per cent since the commencement of the War. In some districts of Madras particularly in the West and East Godavari, there is a practice of paying a minimum wage to picce-workers. Dearness allowance is paid only in a few mills and centres. A male cooly in Madras receives at present about Re. 0-8-4 and a woman cooly Re. 0-7-6 per day. The earnings of a cooly in Bengal have risen from Rs. 14

during the pre-war period to about Rs. 25 per month in some cases today. In C.P., the maximum wages of an unskilled male cooly is about Re. 1 the minimum being about as. 9. Women workers generally earn a wage of as. 8 per day. In Bihar, a male cooly earns about as. 8 per day only, the date for women coolies being an anna or two less. In Orissa, the bulk of the male coolies earn anything between as. 6 and as. 10 per day, the range of variation in the wages of earning of women coolies being as. 5 to as. 7-6 per day. Broadly speaking, wages are paid once a month to the monthly-paid workers, once a month or week to the *kata* workers and daily to casual workers. Almost all the workers are paid directly by the employer but piece-rated workers are paid through the mistry of their batch and a part of their wages is also paid by the contractor when the milling of paddy is undertaken on hire. Some workers are provided with free housing accommodation in Bihar, Orissa and other Provinces. There are no deductions on account of fines or damaged material.

XVI—*Railways.*

Basic Wages and Wage Rates.—It appears that wages on Railways are fixed with reference to (a) the nature and responsibility of the work performed, (b) the wages paid by continuous Railways and other industrial undertakings, (c) local conditions in respect of cost of living and (d) the supply of and demand for labour in general. In regard to (d) the N.W. Railway remarked in its memoradum to the Royal Commission "that a concern which is run on a commercial basis and is expected to earn a reasonable return on the outlay invested is never slow to take full advantage of the principle of supply and demand. This, however, does not take into account another important feature which now-a-days forms a chief plank in the struggle for the amelioration of labour conditions, namely, the question of a living wage." As regards the wage policy of the Railway Board, the following extract from the Proceedings of the 23rd half yearly meeting between the Railway Board and the All-India Railwaymen's Federation (Sept. 1944) is of interest: "The Chief Commissioner referred to the steps which were already being taken by the Board in connection with the examination of reconstruction schemes relating to educational facilities, revision of scales, etc., and pointed out that the preparation of these schemes would naturally take time and that the war was not the time to make such sweeping changes in basic pay. In connection with the revision of the scales of pay, in particular, the Chief Commissioner remarked that it was no use introducing scales which, after a little time, would become unsuitable and would have to be changed again and stated that it would be better to effect the revision of scales on a firm basis. He explained further that the policy of Government was to meet the rise in prices by relief in cash and relief in kind without reference to the question of basic pay. He assured the Federation that the question was being considered and undertook to have examined immediately any particular anomalies regarding scales of pay, etc., if the Federation furnished necessary particulars to the Board."[1] The revisions of scales of pay since 1931 have been in the

[1] *Amplified Report of the Proceedings of the Twenty-Third Half-yearly meeting between the Railway Board and the All-India Railwaymen's Federation*, Septr. 1944, pp. 2-3.

downward direction in most cases in respect of several categories of railway staff. This reduction, it is estimated, amounted to 10 to 15 per cent of the wage bill. On the East Indian Railway, for instance, it was found that the ultimate savings when the revised scales of pay were fully in operation worked to 14 per cent. in the case of subordinate staff and 4 per cent. in the case of other staff. With effect from 1st April 1944, however, on the State Railways, the minimum pay of the lower subordinate staff has been raised, the resulting *minimum* being not in excess of Rs. 40 per month. In regard to Class III Railways also there have been certain revisions. For instance, on the Martins Light Railway, the minimum pay of inferior staff has been raised from Rs. 12 to Rs. 15 p.m. for the Shahdara Saharanpur and Bengal Section and from Rs. 11 to Rs. 14 for the Bihar Section. The following table (Table 116) gives the revised wage rates of inferior Railway staff for selected important occupations on some of the principal Railways.

TABLE 116.

Wage Rates (in Rs.) of Inferior Railway Staff.

Occupation	G.I.P. Rly.	B.N. Rly.	S.I. Rly.	B.P.T. Rly.	E.I. Rly.
Gangmen ...	18-½-23 15-½-18 13½-½-15	17 (Maximum)	12-½/2-14		11-½-17
Keymen ...	13 to 25 (in 7 grades)	23 (Maximum)	13-½-15		13-1-18
Mates ...	16 to 34 (in 5 grades)	30 (Maximum)	15-½-18		20-1-26-2-30
Porters ...	19-1-24 15-1-21 15-1-18 14-1-20 13-1-19 13-1-17		15-½-18 12-1-16 12 (fixed)		12-1-17
Sweepers ...	12 to 21 (in 4 grades) 12 to 22 (in 4 grades)	10-½-15 12-½-17	12-1-15 12		12-1-17 12-½-15
Lampmen ...	23-1-28 15-1-18 13-1-17 12-1-15 11-1-15	17 Maximum	12-1-15		14-1-19 12-1-17
Pointsmen ...	20-1-26 18-1-23 15-1-20 14-1-19 12-1-16	18 Maximum	15-½-18 12-½-15		14-1-19 12-1-17
Gatemen ...	18-½-21 15-½-17 13-½-15	16 Maximum	15-½-18 12-1-15 12 (fixed) 12-½/2-14		12-½-17 12-½-15

TABLE 116—*continued.*

Wages Rates (in Rs.) of Inferior Staff.

Occupation	N.W.Rly.	M.S.M.Rly.	Mysore State Rly.	Gaekwar Baroda Rly.	Scindia State Rly.	Junagadh State Rly.
Gangmen	14-1-17	16-½-18 13-½-16		13-½-16	10-12	14-½-15
Keymen	16-1-20	16-½-18 13-½-16		16-½-17	12-14	17 (Called Weightment)
Mates	19-2-27	18-½-22 16-½-18		17-½-25	15-18	19-21 (Called Muccadams)
Porters	17-2-23 15-1-19 14-1-17	18-½-22 16-½-18 13-½-16 12-½-16	15-½-18 14-½-15 11-½-14	13-½-15	10-14	12-15
Sweepers	17-2-23 14-1-17	13-½-16		12-½-13	10	12 14 3 10
Lampmen	17-2-23 15-1-19	13-½-16	14-½-15	12-½-13		15-18
Pointsmen	17-2-23 16-1-20 15-1-19	16-½-18 13-½-16	16-½-18 14-½-15 11-½-14	13-½-15	10-14	13-15 12-13
Gatemen	17-2-23 15-1-19 14-1-17	18-½-22 13-½-16		12-½ 13	9	11

The following table (Table 117) gives the highest and the lowest wage rates in respect of inferior categories on some of the railways:—

TABLE 117.

Wages of Inferior Categories.

Class	Names of railways which pay the hightest wages	Scale of Pay	Names of railways which pay the lowest wages	Scale of Pay
Gangmen				
I	G.I.P.	18—½—23	S.I.R.	12—½/2—14
II	Jamnagar Dwarka	15—20	Barsi Light Railway	As 6 to As. 9 per day
III	Dehri Rohtas	11—½—15	Bengal Provincial Railway	8/8
Keymen				
I ...	G.I.P.	13—25	Bikaner State	Rs. 13 fixed
II ...	Jamnagar Dwarka	20—25	Jaipur State	Rs. 13 fixed
III' ...	Mewar State	14—1/3—16	Bengal Provincial	Rs. 8/8
Mates				
I ...	G.I.P.	16—34	S.I.R.	15—½—18
II ...	Jamnagar Dwarka	25—30	Jaipur State	15—½—17½
III ...	Mewar State	17—½—20	Bengal Provincial	11/- fixed
Porters				
I ...	G.I.P.	13—24	Jodhpur State	10—14
II ...	Sharanpur Shahdara (Delhi)	15—1/3—18	Jaipur State	10—½—12
III ...	Scindia State	10—14	Bengal Provincial	8'-
Lampmen				
I ...	G.I.P.	11—28	Jodhpur	10—14
II ...	Jamnagar Dwarka	15—20	Bhavnagar State	7—8
III ...	Mewar State	11—1/3—30	Bengal Provincial	10/-
Jamadars				
I ...	B.B. & C.I.	21—30	S.I.R.	12—1—15—½ 18—25
II ...	Shahdara (Delhi) Sahranpur	20—2/3—30	Jamnagar & Geakwar Baroda State	15—20
III ...	Mewar State	17—½—20	Cutch State	8—10
Pointsmen				
I ...	G.I.P.	14—26	Bikaner State	11—½—13
II ...	Jamnagar	15—25	Barsi & Jaipur	11—13
III ...	Cutch State	8—16	Bangal Provincial	8—10
Gatemen ...				
I ...	G.I.P.	11—23	Bikaner	10 & 12
II ...	Jamnagar Dwarka	15—20	Junagadh	11/-
III ...	Dehri Rohtas	11—¼—15	Benagl Provincial	6—8

It will be seen that the Railway administrations have introduced varying scales of minimum and maximum pay as well as rates of increment in respect of workers belonging to more or less the same category. The scales, however, vary from Railway to Railway and in the same Railway also, one finds variations in the scales of maxima and minima for the same class of workers in different departments in the same locality or in the different areas of the same Railway. For instance, at Kharagpur on the B.N. Railway the scale of pay of sweepers employed under the Station Committee is Rs. 11—½—16, while sweepers under the Traffic Department are given a uniform scale of Rs. 12—½—17, and carriage sweepers are paid a fixed salary of Rs. 15 only. On the same Railway and for the same occupation there are variations in wage rates for sweepers as will be seen from the following table:—

TABLE 118.

Variation in Sweepers' Wages.

Place.	*Wage per month.*
Cawnpore ..	Rs. 14|-
Anand ..	Rs. 17|-
Dohad ..	Rs. 15|12|-
Phulera ..	Rs. 13|8
Bandikui ..	Rs. 13|8
Ujjain ..	Rs. 15|12
Agra ..	Rs. 14|-
Kasgunj ..	Rs. 13|8

These differences are justified by the railway authorities on grounds of variations in the cost of living from one area to another, although we are not aware of any scientific enquiries made in support of such differentiation. From such evidence as is available it would appear that owing to war-time conditions, many places which were comparatively cheaper have now become dearer than others which expensive before the war.

Dearness Allowance.—In 1940, the Government of India appointed a Court of Enquiry under the Indian Trade Disputes Act of 1929 to investigate the question of dearness allowance for railway employees. As a result of the recommendations of this Court, dearness allowance was first granted with effect from 1st September, 1940. The rates have been revised since then from time to time and according to the latest revision contained in Notification No. E44 DA11 of the Railway Board, dated 18th April 1945, the allowance is paid to non-gazetted staff on State Railways at the rate of 17½ per cent of their pay subject to certain minima. For purposes of paying the allowance, employees in different places have been placed in four different zones, Zone X, A, B and C. Zone X means the area comprising the municipal limits of Bombay, Calcutta and Cawnpore and such of their suburbs as were previously included in area 'A'. Area 'A' means the area other than 'X' within the municipal limits of a city with a population of not less than 2,50,000 inhabitants according to the 1941 census or, an area sppecially so declared by the Governor-General in Council. "B" area means the area within the municipal limits of a town having a population of 50,000 or more but

less than 2,50,000 inhabitants according to the 1941 census. "C" area means any area not included in the above three categories. The following is the scale of minima laid down :—

TABLE 119.

Wage Minima in Different Zones.

Zone	Pay	Allowance p.m.
X	Rs. 40 and above"	Rs. 20
	Below Rs. 40	Rs. 19
A	Rs. 40 and above	Rs. 19
	Below Rs. 40	Rs. 17
B	Rs. 40 and above	Rs. 16
	Below Rs. 40	Rs. 14
C	Rs. 40 and above	Rs. 14
	Below Rs. 40	Rs. 12

Non-gazetted railway servants in the Railway Units the Defence of India are given an allowance of 10 per cent of their pay subject to the minimum of Rs. 12 for Zones X and A and Rs. 10|8 and Rs. 9 p.m. for Zone B and C respectively. The reason for paying an allowance on a smaller scale to the members of the railway units of the Defence of India was that they had been given an increase in the ration allowance by the Army authorities. It appears that there is considerable dissatisfaction among railway workers in regard to the dearness allowance paid. They contend that the rates are inadequate to meet the increased cost of living in respect of all categories of staff. Moreover, they object to the Zional system of granting relief in the ground that prices have gone up more or less on a uniform scale in all centres. A few company-managed railways like the Barsi Light Railway pay dearness allowance according to the scales prescribed by the Railway Board. Among Class III Railways, the Dehri Rohtas pays at a flat rate of Rs. 9 per month and the Jagadhri Light Railway pays Rs. 4 p.m. to Rs. 25 p.m. The Matheran Light Railway pays a dearness allowance as a percentage of the pay of its staff; 25 per cent to those who draw up to Rs 25, 15 per cent to those who draw from Rs. 25 to Rs. 50 and 10 per cent to those who draw from Rs. 51 to Rs. 200. The Bombay Port Trust Railway pays at a uniform rate of 10 per cent (with a minimum of Rs. 16) to those who draw up to Rs. 500 per month. The Martins Light Railway pays a dearness allowance at different rates in different areas which varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 18 per month.

Grain Shops.—In addition to paying a cash dearness allowance, the railways have, owing to high prices of food and scarcity of supplies, set up grain shops, both stationary and mobile, for supplying commoditites of daily consumption at prices considerably lower than those prevailing in the bazars. According to the Report of the Railway Board for 1943-44, there were 600 such grain shops including mobile vans catering to 805,000 ration card holders as against 160 grain shops catering for 500,000 employees in 1942-43. The prices of the commodities sold at railway grain shops are fixed at a level approximating to the prices ruling in August 1942. On an average, a ration card holder received 1.23 maunds of foodstuffs per month. "The relief afforded to staff measured in terms of the difference between the railway selling prices and local market prices was over 8.8 crores with an average relief per ration card holder per

month of Rs. 10.53, the lowest figure being Rs. 6.14 in March 1944 and the highest Rs. 14.1 in August 1943. Moreover, according to the scheme, the man with the largest family received most relief."[1]

Other allowances.—With effect from 1st July 1944 the Railway Board has granted to running staff certain increases in running allowances in State Railways. This increase amounts to 10 per cent in the case of those getting running allowance of Rs. 60 and under and 6¼ per cent subject to a minimum of Rs. 6 for those monthly running allowance is Rs. 61 and above. Four Class I Railways pay a special local allowance to their staff. For instance, the B.B. & C.I. Railway pays a special local allowance to their subordinate staff working in Bombay, a house rent allowance to their staff at Ahmedabad and a washing allowance to inferior staff and shoe allowance to the Watch and Ward Staff. On the E.I. Railway inferior servants, other than workshop employees, get zone allowances in certain areas varying from Re. 1 to Rs. 3 per month in addition to their pay.

Overtime.—Owing to the conditions created by the war, overtime working on Railways has become a rule rather than an exception in some categories of staff and an enquiry made in the Lahore Division of the North Western Railway shows that sometimes overtime earnings are as high as those accruing from the basic wage. All State Railways maintain registers for recording overtime which are available for inspection by the employees. In some of the smaller Railways, however, overtime is paid at ordinary rates. They do not maintain separate records of overtime work.

Deductions.—The deductions from wages generally made are on account of fines, Provident Fund, recovery of loans dues to railway institutes, house-rent, water and electric charges, etc. Fines are imposed as a disciplinary measure subject to the provisions of Payment of Wages Act. The fines fund is utilised for the welfare of the staff in the case of State Railways.

Wage Period.—The period of wage payment on all Railways is the calendar month and wages are generally paid with 7 to 10 days of their becoming due. In a few exceptional cases, however, the station and traffic relieving staff and the *hamals* are paid between the 16th and 26th of the following month. In order to make payments to employees, cashiers or pay-clerks are sent to different centres. Payments to illiterate workers are generally made in the presence of responsible officials, departmental heads or subordinate supervisory staff and thumb impressions are obtained after they are satisfied that wages have been duly paid.

General Observation.—From the wage tables given in this section it is clear that apart from the basic wages, which are very low, most of the inferior staff are in short grades of a duration of only five to ten years. This naturally blocks a man at his maximum and it has been represented to us that many of these men get no further chance of promotion owing to the unavailability of vacancies in higher grades. Nor are there any regular and well-defined channels of promotions and, it is alleged, promotion is largely dependent on the discretion of the appointing authority. The same, more or less, applies to the sub-ordinate staff.

[1]Report by the Railway Board on Indian Railways for the year 1943-44, Vol. 1, pp. 34-35.

XVII—*Tramways and Buses.*

Except for the Karachi tramways where wages have been revised as a result of adjudication, awards, etc.; basic wages in Bombay, Madras and Calcutta, excepting those of the low-grade workers in the last centre, have remained unaltered since the outbreak of the War. Bus services, on the other hand, have given increases in basic wages. So far as Tramways are concerned, the basic wages per day of drivers of the first grade are Rs. 1-9-3 in Karachi, Rs. 1-9-10 in Bombay and Rs. 1-7-2 in Madras. Conductors of the first grade get slightly less, their daily basic wages being Rs. 1-5-8, 0-14-2 and Rs. 1-5-6, in Karachi, Bombay and Madras respectively. Inspectors of the first grade get Rs. 1-11-1 in Karachi and Rs. 1-13-11 in Bombay. Among the workshop staff, the highest wages are those of fitters in Karachi whose basic wage is Rs. 2-7-8 per day. Dearness allowance is given by all the tramway companies and most of the bus services. The allowance is paid either at a flat rate or on a graded scale. In one case it was linked with the cost of living index number. The net earnings per day of certain categories of workers including dearness allowance and overtime pay are as follows:—

Tramway drivers—Rs. 2 in Karachi; Rs. 2-1-0 in Bombay; Rs. 2-1-8 in Madras.

Conductors (1st grade)—Rs. 2-1-4 in Karachi; Rs. 2-1-0 in Bombay; Rs. 1-15-11 in Madras.

Inspectors—Rs. 2-8-9 in Karachi; and Rs. 3-3-1 in Bombay.

The following table (Table 120) shows the daily basic wages and net earnings of workers in Tramways and buses in selected centres:—

TABLE 120.

*Average Daily Basic Wages and Earnings in Trams and Buses**

Occupation	Karachi Trams and Buses		Bombay				Madras			
			Trams		Buses		Trams		Buses	
	Basic wages	Net earnings	Basic wages	Net earnings	Basic wages	Net earnings	Basic wages	Net earnings	Basic wages	Net earnings
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Drivers I Grade	1 9 3	2 0 0	1 1 7	2 1 0	1 9 10	2 6 4	1 7 2	2 1 8	1 4 1	1 12 1
Drivers II Grade	0 15 1	1 10 10	...	...	...	...	1 0 6	1 11 0	...	...
Cleaners	0 11 2	0 14 1	...	...	...	...	...	...	0 7 0	0 13 10
Conductors I Grade	1 5 8	2 1 4	1 1 7	2 1 0	0 14 2	1 9 5	1 5 6	1 15 11	0 13 7	1 5 11
Conductors II Grade	0 14 1	1 12 4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Conductors A Grade ...	...	...	1 3 1	2 0 0	...	...	0 14 9	1 9 2	0 11 3	1 2 7
Inspectors I Grade	1 11 1	2 8 9	1 13 11	3 3 1	1 1 7	1 12 0	...	...	0 13 9	1 7 5
Inspectors II Grade	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0 8 1	0 15 2
Inspectors III Grade	...	...	... ...	...	...	...	...	...	0 6 6	0 13 2
Starters	1 3 1	1 10 11	...1 9 10	2 11 10	...	...	...	...	...	...
Pushers	0 15 1	1 5 10	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ticket Examiners ...	...	...	1 8 9	2 1 7	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ticket Regulators Permanent Way ...	...	...	1 12 11	2 13 11	...	...	...	...	...	...
Coolies	1 0 8	1 11 3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Pointsmen, Signalmen and Trolleymen	...	...	0 11 4	1 9 3	...	...	...	...	...	...
General Coolies	0 14 4	1 8 2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mechanics I Grade	2 0 8	2 3 4	...	...	...	...	...	...	1 10 1	2 2 7
Mechanics II Grade	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0 13 6	1 4 10
Fitters	2 7 8	4 2 10	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Linemen I Grade	...	...	...	...	...	...	0 12 7	1 7 1	...	...
Linemen II Grade	...	...	...	...	...	...	0 11 1	1 5 7	...	...
Tinkers	...	...	...	...	...	...	1 0 0	1 10 10	1 3 8	1 10 7
Timekeepers ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0 8 0	0 14 10

*The figures for calcutta were not available on the basis of the wage from adopted for this enquiry.

In all tramways, overtime is compulsory in cases of emergency. Except in Calcutta where overtime is paid at the rate of 1¼ times upto two hours and at 1½ times from two to four hours, in the other centres it is paid according to the provisions of the Factories Act. In the case of Bus services overtime is rarely worked. Fines are imposed by tram companies for cheating, wrong punching of tickets, insolence, absence without permission, neglect of duty and failure to comply with traffic regulations. Deductions are also made for shortage of cash in conductors' collections, advance on loans, loss or damage to employers' property, etc. The fines imposed are in accordance with the provision of the Payment of Wages Act. Fining is rarely to be found in bus services. With the exception of casual labour in Karachi tramways, wages are generally disbursed monthly upto the 10th of the succeeding month at the latest.

XVIII—*Plantations.*

As pointed out in a previous chapter, the labour employed on the Tea, Coffee and Rubber plantations in India is semi-agricultural in character and the method of wage payment differs radically from that obtaining generally in factory industry in this country. In the tea gardens at Assam the piece work system of payment generally prevails. There are two such systems; the older one, which is still common, namely, the *hazira* and *ticca* system and the newer system called the unit system. "Hazira" denotes the daily task as also the amount payable for its performance. The task takes about five hours to complete. After finishing the *hazira* or the task, the worker has the option of taking up another task called 'ticca' for which he gets payment separately. *Ticca* is, however, not synonymous with overtime work. *Ticca* is paid at a higher rate than *hazira*. There is no standardization of the task allotted to the workers, but the wage rates are more or less uniform in a tea area, circle or district. This is brought about by agreements among the planters. The daily rates of wages generally are as. 5 for men, as. 4 for women and as. 2 to as. 3 for children, the rates being an anna higher in each case in the Lakhimpur District. Under the unit system the labourer is not given a fixed task but is allowed to do as much or as little as he likes although every labourer is required to do a reasonable amount of work every day. A unit is expected to be finished in one hour for which the payment amounts to one anna. Plucking is paid for by weight excepting at the beginning and at the end of the season. Women are generally employed in plucking the leaf and the usual rate of payment is one anna for 5 lbs. of leaf in the Assam Valley and one anna for 8 to 10 lbs. in the Surma valley where the plucking is of a coarser type. In Bengal, the system of wage payment is the same as in Assam except that *'ticca'* is called *'doubli'* in the Dooars. The *'Doubli'* task is smaller than *Hazira* but is paid at the same rate. The *hazira* rate in Dooars and Terai in Bengal for men, women and child is as. 4, as. 3 and 2 respectively although in some gardens children are paid only as. 1-6. The rate in Darjeeling is higher by one anna, in each case, by the task takes more time to finish. Unlike Assam, plucking is paid on the *hazira* basis, in Bengal for a fixed weight of leaf plucked in the majority of the gardens. Deduction from wages on account of moisture is fairly common. Both the time-rate and the piece-rate systems of wages prevail in South India. The harvesting of

tea, coffee and, to some extent, rubber is paid for by results and women are generally employed on such work except in the case of rubber. Other work is paid for on a time basis. Wages are generally uniform in the various plantation districts owing to agreements among the planters. Speaking generally, tea estates pay a higher rate of wages to men, namely, as. 7 per day than the coffee and rubber estates which pay as. 6 per day. The rates for women are the same in tea, coffee and rubber plantations, being as. 5 a day while children get from as. 3 to as. 0-4-6 per day in tea estates, as. 0-2-6 to as. 4 in coffee estates, and as. 4 in rubber estates. The rate for plucking is 3 to 4 pies per pound. Deduction from the weight of leaf plucked is almost universal in the South Indian Tea estates and is a constant source of complaints by workers. The deduction comes to about 10 per cent in the dry season but can be as high as 30 to 50 per cent during the rainy season. In coffee estates, coffee picking is generally paid for on piece rates, on the basis of the number of bushels, boxes or other volume unit of ripe cherry brought in. As the crops vary widely in coffee estates, the task set in highly variable as also the piece rates. In Mysore and Coorg for picking a bushel of 80 to 100 lbs. the rate varies from as. 4 to as. 10 and as. 8 to as. 10 respectively, while in the Shevaroys the rate per bushel of 55 to 60 lbs. is as. 4 to as. 8. In rubber estates, tappers are paid on a piece-rate basis or on a combination of piece and daily rates. The piece-rate is generally 0-0-8 to 0-1-0 per pound of dry rubber and the daily rate of wages is as. 6 to as. 7. If the latex is washed away by rain, the worker gets no wages except in a few estates in Mundakayam where the basic wage is paid irrespective of the yield. In the factories attached to tea and rubber estates the daily-rate of wages is usually one anna more than that paid to field labourers.

Allowances.—In Assam tea estates no dearness allowance or bonus of any kind is paid. In the Bengal Plantations, the rate of dearness allowance is one anna per *hazira* for adults and 0-0-6 for children. In the tea and rubber estates in South India a dearness allowance of one anna and half an anna is given to adults and children respectively per day. Some estates, especially those in the Nilgiris and in the Wynaad pay a dearness allowance at the rate of 0-0-8 and 0-0-4 per day while in most of the coffee estates the rate is 0-0-6 and 0-0-3 respectively. In Coorg no dearness allowance is paid.

In the tea industry in India, especially in Assam, it has now been a traditional practice for generations to supplement the wages by what are known as concessions. These take the form of the provision of (a) land for cultivation (except in South India), (b) free housing, (c) medical attendance and maternity benefits, (d) fuel and grazing facilities and (e) cheap foodstuffs and clothing. Plantation labourers, who are mainly agriculturists, greatly value the concession of getting lands from the employers for cultivation at cheap rates. Speaking generally, each adult worker gets less than 1|3 of an acre in North Eastern India for cultivation. Secondly, all the labour living in plantations is supplied with free housing. Thirdly, the industry, especially in Assam, has spent considerable sums of money in providing medical facilities and anti-malarial measures for its workers. Maternity benefits are no longer a concession in Assam now in view of

the Assam Maternity Benefit Act. The Bengal Maternity Benefits Bill is before the local Assembly. In South Indian plantations, the benefits are not always given and where given are meagre. Fourthly, fuel is supplied free of charge and workers are also permitted to graze their cattle on the estates. Fifthly, the food concession assumed great importance during the War, owing to the very steep rise in prices of staple foodstuffs and to their short supply.

The following is the scale of rations supplied and the rates charged in the Assam Valley and the Surma valley.

Assam Valley

	Adults	Children	Rate (maximum)
Rice ...	... 4 seers weekly		Rs. 5 Per maund
Dal	... 3½ seers monthly	40 % of adult ration	As. 4 per seer
Mustard Oil	... 1½ „ „		As. 8 per seer
Salt	... ½ seer monthly		As. 3 per seer
Gur	... 2 seer monthly		As. 3 per seer

Surma Valley

	Men	Women	Children	Rate (maximum)
Rice (Weekly)....	5 seers	4 seers	3 seers.	As. 2 per seer
Dal (Weekly). ...	12 chattaks	10 chattaks	7 chattaks	As. 3 per seer
Mustard Oil (Weekly). ...	4 chattaks	3 chattaks	2 chattaks	As. 8 per seer.
Salt (Weekly). ...	4 chattaks	3 chattaks	2 chattaks	As. 1/6 per seer
Gur (Weekly).	4 chattaks	3 chattaks	2 chattaks	As. 3/9 per seer

The following is the weekly scale of rations and the rates charged in the plantations in Bengal:—

	Adults	Children	Rate
Dooars			
Rice ...	... 4 seers	3 seers	Rs. 5 per maund.
Foodgrains other than Rice ...	... 1 „		
Dal ...	... 1 „		
Mustard Oil	... ¼ „		Half cost price
Salt ...	... ¼ „		
Gur ...	... ¼ „		
Terai			
Rice ...	... 5 „		Rs. 5 per maund.
Dal ...	... ¾ „	Half these quantities	Rates at the discretion of the manager.
Mustard Oil	... ½ „		
Salt, ...	... ¼ „		
Gur, ...	... ¼ „		

Darjeeling	Men	Women	Children	Rate
Rice ...	... 6 seers	4 seers.	3 seers	Rs. 8 per maund.

In the South Indian plantations, rice was supplied by most of the estates to their labourers at cost price even before the War. This, was, however, often a source of grievance because of the quality of the rice given, the price charged etc. The Madras Government had, therefore, suggested that the workers should be allowed to purchase rice from the open market but during war time, owing to scarcity etc., this was not possible. The situation has, therefore, been met since October 1941 by the issue of cheap grains including rice. The United Planters' Association of Southern India has suggested that the issue of rice to the workers should be at a rate not higher than four *pucca* Madras measures to the rupee. When rice is cheaper than this in the open market, it is sold at the actual cost price. In the coffee areas of Mysore, Coorg and the Sheveroys, grain concession is not generally given although a few estates supply rice to their workers at concession rates. The ration of food grains in Assam is linked with attendance and is generally not given to non-working children. The monthly *per capita* cost of the foodstuffs and the cloth concession in the gardens sampled for the purpose of the present enquiry in Assam came to Rs. 5-8-6 per capita per month in 1944 and according to the Indian Tea Association, the value of these two concessions in Assam in 1943 was about Rs. 0-10-9 for every rupee of total wages. The monthly *per capita* cost of these concessions in the sampled gardens in 1944 was Rs. 3-5-5 in the Dooars, Rs. 2-1-0 in Terai and Rs. 1-12-8 in Darjeeling. The value of these concessions in 1943, according to the Indian Tea Association was Re. 0-9-9 for every rupee of the total wages in Dooars and Re. 0-3-9 in the Terai and Re. 0-14-3 in Darjeeling. In South India, according to the estimate framed by the United Planters, Association the cash value of these two concessions per day in 1944 varied from Re. 0-2-3 to Re. 0-4-3 per man, Re. 0-1-9 to Re. 0-3 3 per woman and Re. 0-1-6 to Re. 0-2-9 per child. Both the Assam Labour Enquiry Committee, 1921, and the Royal Commission have stated that no monetary value can or should be placed on the concessions. As the concession of cheap foodstuffs and clothing have assumed great importance in war time, it alone can be taken into consideration while assessing wages in plantations at present.

Earnings.—The average monthly cash earnings of settled labourers on the books in 1944 were Rs. 9-10-3, Rs. 7-13-1 and Rs. 5-14-10 per man, woman, and child respectively in the Assam Valley and Rs. 7-13-7, Rs. 5-10-6, Rs. 3-12-10 respectively in the Surma valley. On the other hand, if the monthly earnings on the Estates are divided by the average daily working strength, the figures come to Rs. 12-6-4, Rs. 10-12-3 and Rs. 7-9-1 per man, woman and child respectively in the Assam valley and to Rs. 10-5-4, Rs. 8-6-1 and Rs. 5-4-0 in the Surma valley. In view of the 25 per cent absenteeism, however, the earnings of individual workers must lie between these two figures. The average daily cash earnings are Re. 0-8-2, Re. 0-6-10 and Re. 0-4-8 per man, woman and child respectively in the Assam Valley and Re. 0-6-7, Re. 0-6-2 and Re. 0-3-2 in the Surma Valley. In the Dooars the average monthly earnings including dearness allowance, are Rs. 13-8-0, Rs. 8-12-6 and Rs. 3-14-11 and in the Darjeeling revenue district, they are Rs. 12-4-8, Rs. 9-12-10 and Rs. 4-9-1 for man, woman, and child respectively. Owing to about 30 per cent absenteeism, however, the actual earnings are considerably less than what these

figures indicate. The daily average cash earnings are Re. 0-8-2, Re. 0-5-5, Re. 0-2-5 in the Dooars and Re. 0-7-6, Re. 0-6 1 and Re. 0 2 11 in the Darjeeling revenue district. In the South Indian plantations the average monthly cash earnings including dearness allowance of men in tea estates are about Rs. 10-12-0, in coffee estates Rs. 8-11-9 and in rubber estates Rs. 13-2-0, where tappers work for all days in the week. The average monthly cash earnings of women engaged on plucking are about Rs. 11 and about Rs. 8 in picking in coffee estates. The average monthly cash earnings per worker in South Indian plantations in 1943-44 were Rs. 10-3-4.

The following table (Table 121) shows the monthly earnings in sampled estates in Assam and Bengal:—

TABLE 121.

Average Monthly Earnings of Men, Women and Children in Sampled Tea Gardens in Assam and Bengal:—

District.	1939			1944		
	Men	Women	Children	Men	Women	Children.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Assam Valley.						
Lakhimpur	10- 6-10	9- 4-10	6- 2-11	12- 0- 5	11- 1-10	7- 4- 5
Sibsagar	8- 3-11	7- 5- 9	5- 3- 0	11-11- 6	10-15- 6	6- 7-11
Nowgong	9- 7- 7	8-10- 6	4-12- 9	9-12-11	9- 6- 2	5-11- 1
Darrang	9- 0- 4	6-12- 8	5- 0- 6	11- 6- 6	8- 9-10	5-14-10
Surma valley.						
Sylhet	7- 8-10	5- 5- 8	4- 2- 5	9- 5- 2	7- 3- 2	5- 3- 0
Cachar	7- 1- 2	5- 9- 1	4- 3- 3	8-10- 2	6- 6-10	6- 1- 7
Bengal.						
Dooars	8-12- 5*	5-15- 6*	2-11- 9*	13- 8- 0	8-12- 6	3-14- 1
Terai	8- 6- 3	6-15- 1	2-13- 7	13-14- 2	11- 5- 4	4-10- 5
Darjeeling	8- 1- 1	6- 4- 4	3- 6- 8	11- 3- 3	8-13- 0	4-15- 3

*Figures for 1940.

The Royal Commission stated in their Report (p. 387) that in 1929-30, the average monthly earnings (obtained by dividing the total monthly earnings by the average daily working strength) in the Assam Valley were Rs 13-8-7 for men, Rs. 11-1-7 for women and Rs. 7-8-6 for children, and that in Surma Valley the corresponding averages were Rs. 10-11-0, Rs. 8-6-1 and Rs. 5-6-2 respectively. The earnings began to decline as a result of the depression in 1930 and the trend was accelerated by the International Tea Control which came into operation in 1933-3. The Control restricted production which resulted in the reduction of work and consequently of earnings of labour. The earnings have shown an upward tendency in recent years, but they have not even now caught up the level of 1929-30. It is estimated that as compared to the pre-war period, the cost of living has gone up by at least 200 per cent in North East India while the total earnings of plantation workers including the value of food and cloth concessions have gone up by about 80 per cent only. In the South Indian plantations the cost of living has risen by

about 100 per cent while the earnings have gone up by 50 per cent in the case of men and about 70 per cent in the case of women who were getting extremely low wages before the war. Thus, it would appear that, as compared to the pre-war period, the real wages of plantation workers have gone down very considerably.

XIX—*Manganese Mining.*

A vast majority of the workers in manganese mines work on a piece-rate basis, although about 50 per cent in the Shivrajpur mine are time-rated. The rates of wages vary from mine to mine, and even in the same mine the rate varies on account of consideration of lead and lift, transport facilities etc. The unit of work adopted for the calculation of wages is either a ton, or a tub of ore, or spoils raised. Workers, who work in gangs, generally consist of members of the same family and wages are paid to the head of each gang who distributes them among the members. In the Shivrajpur mine, however, payment is made to individual members of the gang. As Central Provinces is the most important centre of manganese mines accounting as it does for nearly 76 per cent of the total production, the wage rates prevailing there give a good indication of the wage level in the industry. It is, however, easy to ascertain the actual wages paid, because of the system of paying wages in a lump sum to the head of the gang. It is understood that in making the wages return to the Chief Inspector of Mines, the most important concern follows the practice of treating a woman's share of joint wages as equal to two-thirds of a man's. Moreover, the books of the contractors are not always kept in a systematic and intelligible manner. However, during our investigations an attempt was made to collect some wage data from certain mines of the above concern in C.P. The following table shows the average wages in selected important occupations during the first week of August 1944:—

TABLE 122.

Cash Wages of Workers in certain Manganese Mines in C. P. in August 1944

Occupation.	Total number of workers.		Average weekly wages per head.		Average daily wages per head.	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
			Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.
Bed Ore Mining and dead work	834	685	2- 8- 0	1-10- 7	0- 7- 3	0- 4-10
Underground mining	137	—	3-13- 7	—	0-10-10	—
Boulder Mining	65	126	1-14- 5	1- 4- 2	0- 6- 9	0- 4- 6
Development	313	254	3- 3- 3	2- 1-11	0- 8- 8	0- 5-10
Transport	319 (255 T)*	6	1-15- 5	1- 4-10	0- 6- 3	0- 4- 2
Railing and Loading	12	40	2- 9-10	1-11-11	0- 6-11	0- 4- 8
Jigging	137 (T)*	93 (T)	1-10-11	1- 1-11	0- 6- 5	0- 4- 4
Ore cleaning and Washing	1	82	2- 8-10	1-11- 3	0- 6- 9	0- 4- 6
Miscellaneous	54	33	2-11-11	1-13- 4	0- 7-11	0- 5- 4

*T = Time-rated.

The weighted daily average wages amount to 7 annas 7 pies for men and 5 annas for women in these mines. In Shivrajpur, the daily average basic wages of surface and underground miners come to 0-8-10 and 0-11-0 respectively, and their daily total earnings amount to 0-12-8 and 14 annas respectively. The Shivrajpur Syndicate has, however, a system of standard (*Amani*) rates for piece-rated as well as daily-rated workers which are 8 annas for *mukadams*, 7 annas for men and 5 annas for women. If the daily wages fall short of the standard the difference is made good by the company. In Sandur, a new scale of wages and dearness allowance has been drawn up since 1st March 1945 which gives the basic wage at the rate of 7 annas for men and 5 annas for women. The C.P. Manganese Ore Company provides cheap grain and cloth to labour and the cost of these concessions in June 1944 was 3.39 annas and 0.40 annas respectively per head per day. In Shivrajpur a dearness allowance of 2 annas a day per attendance is given to daily and piece-rated workers, while a dearness allowance of Rs. 5 to Rs. 8 per month, according to the pay, is given to the supervisory staff. In addition, a bonus of 20 per cent of the total earnings is given to piece-rated and daily-rated workers. The revised scale of dearness allowance in Sandur varies from 0-1-6 to 0-3-0 for men and 0-1-0 to 0-2-6 for women for every day of attendance. A holiday bonus of two days' wages is also given in Sandur to all workers who put in at least 25 days' work per month. The wage period is generally a week in the Central Provinces, a fortnight in Shivrajpur and a month in Sandur. Wages are paid on the eve of the weekly bazar day in the Central Provinces, within 9 days of the expiry of the wage period in Shivrajpur and within 4 days in Sandur.

XX—*Mineral Oil Industry.*

The workers in the mineral oil industry are all time-rated. In Assam, the artisans in the refinery are classified into five grades, the lowest grade getting Rs. 1-2-0 to Rs. 1-6-0 and the highest Rs. 3-8-0 to Rs. 4 per day. In the Punjab, skilled workers in the refinery have generally two grades, the minimum and maximum rates being Re. 0-10-0 and Rs. 3-8-0 per day respectively. The rates of wages per day of skilled oil workers vary from Rs. 1-2-0 to Rs. 4 in Assam and from 0-12-0 to Rs. 3 in the Punjab. Unskilled and semi-skilled workers receive a wage of as. 12 to Rs. 1-2-0 in Assam and between Re. 0-9-0 and Re. 0-11-0 per day in the Punjab. An analysis of the daily basic wages in the industry shows that 47.7 per cent of the workers in Assam get wages between Rs. 0-12-0 and Re. 1 and only 7.9 per cent over Rs. 2. In the Punjab the modal group which consists of 58.3% of the workers earns between as. 8 and as. 12 while only 6.9% get above Rs. 2 per day. The Assam Oil Company gives a dearness allowance of Rs. 16-8-0 per month, a temporary emergency allowance of 10 per cent of basic wages earned and an absent dependents' allowance of Rs. 3 for each ration less than 4 drawn from the Company's stores. The Attock Oil Company gives dearness allowance at the same rates as the N.W. Railway. The allowances in both the Oil Companies are linked with attendance. A peculiarity in both the centres of the industry is that a worker forfeits his dearness allowance if he is absent without leave for two days or more in the month in the Punjab and for more than 6 days in the month in Assam. This practice is illegal under section 9(2) of the Payment of Wages Act. The wage period in both

the concerns is a month and wages are paid within 10 days of their becoming due.

XXI—*Gold Mining.*

In the Kolar gold field wages in the different occupations have been standardised and the standardised rates are being paid in all the four mines. There is no system of graded or time-scale promotion as such but in the case of daily rated men, other than apprentices, the rates are increased biennially up to the scheduled maximum. A Wage Census was conducted on a sample basis in the wages and earnings of the workers in the Gold field, the results of which show that among underground occupations the highest paid job is of the Machine Mistry whose average wage is Rs. 1-3-4 per day, his total earnings for a fortnight being Rs. 21-1-9. The lowest basic wage is that of Packwalling coolies being Re. 0-9-4 per day, the average earnings including allowances for a fortnight being Rs. 13-2-6. It is seen that nearly half the workers underground are in receipt of a basic wage of about annas nine per day and that their total earnings including all allowances for a fortnight come to about Rs. 13. In regard to contract labour underground, nearly half of which works on a piece-rate basis, the bulk of the workers seem to earn about As. 12 per day and Rs. 14 to Rs. 15 for a fortnight. It should be noted that contract coolies underground are engaged on much more arduous work than company labour. All the surface workers are employed directly by the companies. Among them, the best paid category is of Furnacemen, their average daily net earnings being Rs. 1-9-4 and average fortnightly earnings being Rs. 23-7-1. Among surface workers, a very large proportion are in receipt of a daily wage varying from As. 6 to As. 8 and a fortnightly earning of Rs. 10 to Rs. 12. Workers in the Engineering Department work both underground and on the surface. Among them machinists are the best paid, the lowest paid being coolies. The highest daily wage is Rs. 1-5-7 and the highest average fortnightly earnings Rs. 24-11-6. The bulk of these workers, including coolies, are in receipt of a daily wage of about Rs. 1-1-0 and a fortnightly earning of about Rs. 21-4-0.

The employers have been paying to their employees a cash dearness allowance since 1942. Those drawing Rs. 40 or below get Rs. 9-8-0 per month as dearness allowance and those getting over Rs. 40 but less than Rs. 80 per month get dearness allowance at the rate of Rs. 10-8-0 per month. The companies also pay a good attendance bonus both to their own men and to contractors labour. The amount of bonus is Rs. 4-8-0 per month to underground workers in receipt of a wage not exceeding Rs, 3 per day while for surface workers it varies from Rs. 2 per month to Rs. 4-8-0 per month. The bonus is paid twice a month. In order to qualify for the bonus no worker either underground or surface can remain absent for more than two shifts (days) out of the total worked during the month. It is seen that nearly 90 per cent of the company labour and 60 to 70 per cent of the contract labour qualify for the bonus. In these mines there is also a system of paying a number of special bonuses for good work done, such as packwall bonus, hoist bonus, drive bonus, etc.

For several years up to about 1940 the basic wage structure in the mines had remained unaltered. In that year, however, the basic daily

wage rate was increased by one anna and a similar increase was again granted in 1942. As compared to the pre-war period, earnings in the Kolar Gold Field have gone up by about 75 per cent while the cost of living index number for Kolar was 212 in March 1945 (on the base 1935-36=100).

Wages are paid directly to the workers employed by the companies as also to underground labour engaged through contractors. It is noticeable that the control over the payment of wages to contract labour is very effective since the companies themselves maintain the pay registers and also make the payments themselves, because under the Mysore Labour Act, they are held responsible not only for their own labour but also for contract labour employed for purposes of their work. The wage period is a fortnight. Although the Payment of Wages Act is not in force in Mysore, the time elapsing between the date on which wages fall due and the day on which payment is made is less than a week. Fines are rarely imposed.

XXII—*Mica Mining and Manufacturing*

The wage level in the mica industry is probably the lowest in India with the exception perhaps of certain unregulated industries like shellac and bidi making. The wages in the factory section of the industry are lower than those in the mining section. The reason why in spite of the low wage level in the industry the workers are not seeking alternative sources of employment are: firstly, the work is not strenuous and secondly, practically whole families of workers appear to be working either in factories or in their own homes. In the mining section, however, the work is extremely strenuous and risky. In the case of bigger mines wages have gone up by 80 per cent since 1938. This is particularly true of the mines situated in the Kodarma Reserve Forest. On the other hand, in areas like Masnodih and Gawan, the wages are lower than those paid in other areas largely because the labour is immobile being closely attached to agriculture. There are appreciable differences also in the wages paid by the bigger and smaller mine owners. The following summary table shows the wages in 1939 and 1944 in principal occupations in mica mines.

TABLE 123.

Daily Earnings in Mica Mines.

Occupation.	1939	1944	Rise %
Unskilled coolie	0- 6- 6	0- 9- 0	38.4
Hand-driller	0- 8- 0	0-12- 0	50.0
Machine-driller	0-13- 0	1- 2- 0	27.5
Shot-firer	0-12- 0	1- 0- 0	33.3
Fireman	0- 9- 0	0-13- 6	50.0
Carpenter	0-12- 0	1- 8- 0	100.0
Females	0- 5- 0	0- 7- 6	50.0

The figures in the above table are inclusive of allowances. Only one or two concerns pay a separate dearness allowance at the rate of as. 2 in a rupee of earnings.

Wages in mines proper are always paid directly to the workers. In the case of *uparchalla* workings, however, which are mostly done through

contractors, wages to ordinary workers are not paid directly but are paid through or by the contractor. In most of the mines, the period of wage payment is a week though in a few it is a fortnight. The wage period is so adjusted that the worker gets payment one day before the market day. There are two types of deductions made from wages: (a) general, and (b) special. Every worker earning more than one rupee in the week is required to contribute compulsorily one pice towards the *Goshala* Fund. This is a general deduction. On festive occasions like Puja, Holy, Diwali, etc., special deductions are made. It is understood that during Puja, every worker is required to contribute two days' earnings towards a fund which is managed by the miners' managers and sweets are distributed to all the workers. In the larger mines there are no complaints about delay in payment. In the case of small mines, however, payments are delayed sometimes even by a fortnight.

In the *mica manufacturing* concerns, as stated already, the wage level is lower than that in the mines. It appears that the basic wages have gone up by about 15 to 20 per cent. In several concerns dearness allowance is paid at varying rates ranging between 10 and 30 per cent. The following table shows the wages in selected important occupations in some of the sampled factories:—

TABLE 124.

Rates of Wages paid to Men, Women and Children employed in important Occupations in Selected Mica Factories.

Factory No.	Cutters	Sorters	Condenser makers	Wrapper makers	Screeners	Packers
C/1/M	0 9 0	0 12 0	0 12 0		0 10 0	0 7 0
W	...	...	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 6 0	...
C	0 3 6	0 4 6	0 6 6	0 6 6	0 3 0	...
C/2/M	0 1 3	0 8 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 7 0
W	per seer		0 10 0	0 10 0	0 5 6	...
C	per seer	0 5 0	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 3 0	0 4 0
C/3/M	0 8 6	0 9 0	0 9 6	...	0 7 0	0 8 0
W	...	...	0 8 6	...	...	...
C	0 4 0	0 4 6	0 6 0		0 3 6	...
C/4/M	0 9 0	0 12 0	0 10 0	...	...	0 8 0
W	...	...	0 7 0	...	...	...
C	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 5 6	...	0 3 6	...
C/5/M	0 8 6	0 10 0	0 5 0 to	...	...	0 7 6
W	...	0 4 6	0 8 0	...	...	...
C	0 3 6	0 8 0	per seer on contract	...	0 3 6	0 5 0
C/6/M	...	0 8 0	0 9 6	0 8 6	...	...
W	...	...	...	...	...	...
C	...	0 3 6	0 6 0	...	0 4 0	...
C/7/M	...	0 12 0	0 10 6	...	...	...
W	...	...	0 9 0	...	...	...
C	...	0 4 0	0 7 0	...	...	...
C/8/M	...	0 12 0	0 10 6	...	...	...
W	...	...	...	...	...	...
C	...	...	0 4 0	...	...	...

The main point to be noted about wages in such factories is that not only are they low in an absolute sense, but there is considerable amount of sweating especially of female and child labour which is available at low rates of wages. Moreover, owing to the restrictive purchase policy of the Joint Mica Mission wages have been showing a declining trend. As regards home workers, their wages have remained stationary. It was stated by the employers that they were not in a position to increase the wages or give an adequate dearness allowance for the reason that the Joint Mica Mission's prices for mica were not much higher than pre-war prices.

XXIII—*Iron Ore Mining.*

In this industry there are two main categories of workers, namely, cutters and loaders. Drillers may be regarded as a sub-category of cutters. Cutters are paid on four different systems: (a) the box system, (b) the tub rate, (c) the cubic foot rate, and (d) the tonnage rate. The workers seem to prefer the box system which is easy to remember. The rates of wages differ for soft ore and hard ore although there is not much difference in the earnings of the workers dealing with these two types of material. The cutters' earnings, including dearness allowance, vary from Re. 0-13-6 to Re. 1 per day. Loaders are generally paid on a daily-rate basis. Their wages vary between as. 5 and as. 8 per day. Differential rates are paid for men and women loaders. Dearness allowance on a sliding scale is paid by the TISCO while other concerns pay an extra food allowance at a flat rate. The TISCO also pays a profit sharing bonus and attendance bonus. Permanent workers of the TISCO who get wages up to Rs. 25 per month are given 50 per cent of their wages as dearness allowance. After this there is a diminishing sliding scale. Workers under contractors at Noamundi get 25 per cent of their basic wages as dearness allowance. At Gorumahisini contractors pay no dearness allowance. The Indian Iron and Steel Co. Ltd., at Gua pays extra food allowance at the rate of 1½ annas per rupee earned. The Orissa Minerals Development Co. at Barabil pays no cash allowance or bonus, but sells foodstuffs such as rice, dal, wheat products, oil etc., at rates ruling in June 1942. The C. P. Syndicate, who are contractors, have opened a grocery shop for selling food-stuffs at controlled rates to their workers. Fuel is supplied free of charge to a certain proportion of the workers at Noamundi and this is also the case in other mines. Apart from food allowance and concessions in the TISCO mines the workers employed directly by the company get two months' wages as profit sharing bonus every year. Those who are absent for only one day during four weeks of work are paid two days' wages as attendance bonus, while those who are absent only for two days get one days's wages. Company labour is paid direct but contractors' labour is paid through the recruiting sardars. The wage period is both the week and the month. Speaking generally wages are paid a week after they are due in the case of weekly paid workers and after ten days in the case of monthly-paid workers. Companies pay their staff punctually but contractors often hold up payments for weeks at a time. Except in the TISCO mines wages have not been standardised.

XXIV—*Salt Mining.*

Unlike other mines, the system of wage payment in the rock salt mines at Khewra is somewhat peculiar. In this mine, each registered

miner is allowed to fill a certain number of tubs of clean salt during a shift, that number being at present 12. The duration of the shift varies from month to month, but is usually one of 20 days. There are 10 to 11 shifts in a year. On an average, a miner is able to fill up his tubs in about 15 days. For purposes of filling the tubs he has to take the help of an assistant for the carriage of salt from the place of excavation to that of loading, for filling of tubs and sometimes even for the excavation of salt. The assistant is not paid by the Mines but by the miner himself. Moreover, the miner is not provided by the employer with any tools, oil for his lamp or gun powder for blasting, waste paper, etc., required in connection with his work and has to pay for these himself. In addition to the payment which the miner receives for the salt tubs which he fills, he is also paid for the excavation of marl and for forward excavation known as *'handkathi'*. In recent years certain changes have occurred in the salt mines at Khewra in the method of wage payment. These are briefly as follows: (1) While formerly there was no individual weighment of the miners' tubs, each tub is now weighed and credit is given to the miners for the additional salt loaded up to 25 per cent in excess of the capacity of the tub (40 maunds). The miners are also compensated to the extent of one per cent of their production on account of wastage. (2) All marl which is excavated is now paid for instead of only marl in excess of 4 per cent of the seam as was the practice before. Till the year 1941, the miners were being paid at the rate of Rs. 3-6-0 per tub. Thereafter, they were given a dearness allowance at the rate of 10 per cent of their earnings. This was subsequently raised to 20 and 25 per cent. Since 1st January 1945, however, the tub rates itself has been increased by 80 per cent, the rate at present being Rs. 6-1-2 per tub. This increase has been granted as a compensation for the increase in the cost of living. No dearness allowance is, therefore, paid separately, It is difficult to estimate the net earnings of the miners in view of the fact that they have to pay the assistants and also to incur expenditure incidental to the mining operations. Enquiries recently made show that owing to the increase in the prices of materials required by the miners, the mining expenses per tub are as much as Rs. 1-9-0. The payment of wages is not always made direct to the miners and there are complaints of short payments by the middlemen who in this case are gangmen. The wages are also not paid immediately after the close of the shift. Although fining is not heavy in individual cases the amount of the fine levied is very high.

XXV—*Rickshaw Pullers*

In all the centres surveyed, almost all the public rickshaws are owned by a large number of petty capitalists generally known as *chawdhris*. In Simla, the *chawdhris* share the earnings of the pullers. In Madras and Calcutta, the pullers pay a fixed hire charge for the vehicle and keep the whole of their earnings less the hire charges for themselves. The *chawdhri* system relieves the pullers of all responsibilities with regard to the purchase, maintenance and registration of rickshaws. At the same time, it leads to their exploitation. It would appear that recently there has been a large increase in the number of rickshaws and rickshaw pullers with the result that there has developed an unhealthy competition both among the owners and pullers. It was very difficult to get a precise idea

of the earnings of rickshaw pullers as they do not keep any accounts of their earnings which are irregular in character. In Simla there is also the fear on the part of the pullers that if they gave out the correct information, the *chawdhris* might demand a larger share of their earnings. In Simla, from such investigations as could be made, it was seen that the average earnings per puller varied from about Rs. 26 to Rs. 40 p.m. An examination of the books of the *chawdhris* showed that the earnings per puller varied from Rs. 30 to Rs. 40, exclusive of tips. These are the earnings during summer months. In addition, it is estimated that a man makes about Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 per month by way of tips. Enquiries made in Madras showed that although their earnings were irregular a rickshaw puller on an average, earned from Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 2-8-0 per working day. Thus, excluding hire charges, they make from Rs. 30 to Rs. 60 per month. Pullers of private rickshaws in Madras receive a remuneration ranging from Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 per month. The Madras rickshaw pullers do not normally make anything by way of tips, although in the last two years or so, owing to the presence of military personnel, the pullers received heavy tips. The present enquiry shows that the average income of a rickshaw puller in Calcutta is slightly over Rs. 11 per week. About 99 per cent. of the income accrues from rickshaw pulling alone, The income of the rickshaw puller fluctuates from day to day and from season to season. It is reported by the pullers that their daily earnings are considerably higher during the rains than in other seasons. The following summary table shows the average daily earnings of rickshaw pullers in Nagpur, Murree, Madura, Vizagapatam and Delhi.

TABLE 125.

Daily Earnings of Rickshaw Pullers.

	Rs.	As.	P.
Nagpur*	4	0	0
Murree	2	8	0
Madura	1	0	0
Vizagapatam	0	8	6
Delhi	3	0	0

*Relates to Cycle-rickshaws.

XXVI—*Central Public Works Department*

It has already been stated in Chapter I that about 75 per cent of the workers engaged on works in the C.P.W.D. are contractors' men. During the present enquiry it was found that the rates for contractors' men do not materially differ from the departmental wage rates and at a few places were actually found to be higher than the latter. The principle followed by the C.P.W.D. in the fixation of wages is generally to adopt the rate prevalent in the areas, especially those sanctioned by the Provincial Public Works Departments. It is seen that as compared to the pre-war period the rates of wages have gone up in most of the places

selected for this enquiry. Dearness allowance is paid in most of the centres. The following table shows the range of earnings of skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled workers in representative divisions of the Central Public Works Department:—

TABLE 126.

Range of Earnings under C. P. W. D.

Division	Rang of Earnings		Remarks
	Skilled	Semi-skilled and Unskilled	
Bengal C. P. W. D.	Re. 1 to Rs. 2-12-0 per day	Re. 0-7-6 to Re. 0-9-6 per day	Plus D.A.
Eastern Aviation Division	Rs. 50 to Rs. 78 per month	Rs. 22 to Rs. 30 per month	Gross earnings
Bombay Aviation Division	Rs. 1-14-0 to Rs. 3-9-0 per day	Re. 1 to Rs. 2-2-0 per day	Do earnings
Bangalore Aviation Division	Rs. 2-8-0 per day	Re. 0-10-0 to Rs. 1-8-0 per day	Do earnings
Karachi Aviation Division	Rs. 54 to Rs. 164 per month	Rs. 29 to Rs. 36 per month	plus D.A.
Delhi Division	Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 3 per day	Rs. 0-12-0 to Rs. 2-8-0 per day	Gross earnings
Simla Central Division	Rs. 30 to Rs. 90 per month	Rs. 14 to Rs. 20 per month	Plus D.A.

These figures must be viewed in the context of the fact that permanent employees of the Central Public Works Department are entitled to pensions like any other permanent servant of the Government under the Civil Service Rules. As regards "work-charged" men, they have recently been made eligible to the membership of a contributory Provident Fund. Workers are generally paid monthly although casual labourers are paid every fortnight, within four days of the wages becoming due. Where overtime is worked it is paid for at the ordinary rates except at Karachi Aviation Division where overtime is paid at one and a half times the normal rate. No fines are imposed.

XXVII—*Municipalities.*

Among the major municipalities in India, the municipality of Bombay alone has laid down a fixed minimum wage for men, women and children of Rs. 25, Rs. 21, and Rs. 18, respectively. The minimum wage for workers working in the drainage department is, however, Rs. 28 per month. A vast majority of the employees of the Municipal Corporation at Karachi have fixed scales of pay with graded promotions. The wage scales in Bombay and Karachi for staff other than workshop staff are the highest in the country. The Conservancy staff, which forms a large portion of municipal employees in most of the cities, get a wage of about Rs. 25 per month in Bombay, Rs. 21 in Karachi, but in places like Cawnpore, Nagpur, Lahore and Madras, their wages are low, being about Rs. 15 in Nagpur, Rs. 10-8-0 in Cawnpore, about Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 in Lahore and about Rs. 12 to Rs. 15 in Madras. All the city municipalities pay dearness allowance on the Provincial scale. In view of the very

unpleasant character of the duties which they are called upon to perform, there would appear to be a good case for a revision of the basic wages of such employees. It might be noted, however, in this connection that municipal labour enjoys certain facilities such as leave, Provident Fund, etc., which are not always available to employees in private industry. Moreover, it has been reported from some of the centres that sweepers are usually able to add to their regular income by way of tips etc., from house holders. There is no standardisation of wages for the same occupation in the different departments of the municipalities and this is a fruitful source of grievance. All the municipalities pay wages directly to the employees usually before the 10th of the month following the one for which they are due although in one case delays were found to occur and wages were not paid till about the 14th or 17th of the following month. The incidence of fining is not heavy but there are general complaints of fining being capricious. Some of the municipalities maintain no fine funds. It is noteworthy that the fine fund of the Bombay Municipality amounts to over five lakhs of rupees. The Payment of Wages Act does not apply to municipal labour except for municipal workshops registered under the Factories Act. Enquiries into conditions of Municipal labour show that most of the provisions of the Act are complied with by the municipalities and the workers' representatives are anxious that the Act should be made applicable to all municipal labour. It would appear that there is much to be gained and nothing lost in doing so.

XXVIII—*Port Labour.*

In regard to the labour employed in the Ports, it is found that except in the port of Karachi, there are no regular scales of pay for the workers in the other ports. In the Port of Bombay, both skilled and unskilled workers are on daily rates of pay, this being the case also in the Ports of Madras and Cochin. In regard to labour engaged in loading and unloading of cargo, the Port authorities in Bombay have laid down that a labourer (Toliwalla), must be paid a minimum wage of Rs. 1-12-0 per day. Similar labour in the Calcutta Port has now been placed on a monthly rate of Rs. 18 plus a dearness allowance of Rs. 14. The labourers employed in the Calcutta Port for loading and unloading also get a food concession amounting to about Rs. 6 per month. In Madras, where the Retainer system has been introduced, loading and unloading coolies earn between Rs. 35 and Rs. 40, per month. In Karachi the employees are either daily or monthly rated. The basic rate of unskilled labourers in Karachi was As. 12 per day before the War but is now As. 14 per day. The loading and unloading of cargo in Karachi Port is done by stevedore labour. In Cochin, where this type of labour is employed through a contractor, the workers get a daily wage of about As. 10. Among skilled and semi-skilled workers attached to workshops in Ports, the wage rates appear to be the highest in Bombay. The scales of dearness allowance granted to Port employees are, except in the case of Calcutta, lower than those prevailing in important industries in the cities in which the Ports are situated. Most of the Port authorities, in addition to paying a dearness allowance, have made excellent arrangements for supplying foodgrains and other necessities of life at concession rates and the value of this concession varies from Rs. 6 to Rs. 9|6 per month per worker. While

considering the question of wages of employees in Ports, a development arising out of War conditions may here be referred to. In the Ports of Calcutta and Madras, a large proportion of the employees have been "militarised", and such workers, in addition to their wages, receive compensatory allowance at 25 per cent of wages plus rations, the money value of which amounts to about Rs. 20 per month. When such personnel is demilitarised, as it shortly will be, there would be an appreciable fall in their earnings. In Bombay the workers employed direct by the Port are paid monthly. Toliwalla labour is either paid daily or when loading and unloading work in a particular ship is completed or monthly. All Toliwallas give advances against wages due. Workers in the port of Calcutta are paid monthly on the basis of all the days in the month including Sundays and holidays. In Karachi the system is of daily, weekly and monthly payment for different categories of workers. Monthly rated workers are paid monthly and daily rated weekly in the Port of Cochin. Fining in the Port of Bombay is not heavy. In Cochin no fines are imposed. In Bombay, considerable over-time was being worked during the period of our enquiries owing to the conditions created by the war. This was so in other ports as well. Generally overtime is paid for to these to whom the Factories Act does not apply at varying rates.

XXIX—*Standardisation of Wages.*

Since the publication of the Report of the Royal Commission, standardisation of wages in the important industries of the country has made little or no progress, the only two exceptions being the cotton mill industry in Ahmedabad and Indore (although in the latter centre standardisation has not necessarily meant uniformity of wage rates in different units) and the gold mining industry at Kolar. Some of the obstacles in the way of standardising wage rates in the different industries has been the absence of standardisation of occupational nomenclature and the lack of organisation on the part of labour, but the chief obstacle is either an imperfect appreciation on the part of employers of the need for standardisation or the anxiety of the industries concerned not to unsettle labour by bringing about changes in the wage structure. In Bombay, several schemes have been framed from time to time for the standardisation of wages, the latest being the one published in the Report of the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee. In the jute industry, in spite of the very strong comments of the Royal Commission, wages have not so far been standardised. There are considerable variations in the wages paid between unit and unit in the same centre and very often two neighbouring mills pay different rates of wags for the same kind of work. It is, however, understood that the Indian Jute Mills Association is now making an earnest attempt to standardise wages. Variations in wage rates for the same or a similar job between unit and unit is always a fruitful source of grievance. In the Railways, the majority of which are now State-managed, we still find differential rates being paid in the same geographical area for the same occupation, the main reason being that when the railways were under contrary managements, they had adopted such rates. In plantations, there is a fair degree of uniformity in the rates of wages paid in the same circle or locality. This is achieved, as stated earlier, by agreement among planters of a tea district or circle.

In semi-government bodies, like municipalities and port trusts, differential rates of wages are often paid for the same or similar occupations in the different departments. Among certain unorganised industries, such as the bidi industry, there is a fair degree of uniformity in the same locality in the piece rates for different kinds of bidis. This also applies to shellac and mica splitting. So far as factory industries, such as matches, silk, wool, etc., are concerned, there is neither standardisation of wages nor of occupations, and the widest disparities are found to exist in the wages obtaining in different units in the same centre. In mining special mention may be of the Kolar Gold Field, where all the companies have standardised both wage rates and occupations. There was no such standardisation in other mining industries surveyed by us.

Although standardisation of wage rates has made little or no progress during the last fifteen years, there are now in vogue in important centres of industries uniform scales for the payment of dearness allowances. We have noticed already that the scale of the allowances is much higher than the basic wage in the case of certain occupations, and this has, to some extent, helped to iron out wage differentials. This can, however, be only a passing phase in that dearness allowance is purely of a temporary character. The need for the standardisation of wage rates thus continues to be as great as ever in order, firstly, that labour may have no inducement to migrate from unit to unit, and, secondly, that the good employer may not suffer from unfair competition at the hands of another who believes in cutting down wages to the lowest marginal level.

XXX—*Cost of Living.*

The Royal Commission recommended that family budget enquiries should be conducted in important industrial centres in the country. The only progress made about compilation of Cost of Living Index Numbers since then has been in Bombay City (1932-33), Ahmedabad (1933-35), Madras (1935-36), Cawnpore (1938-39) and Nagpur (1941-1942), where family budget investigations were made (during the period mentioned against each place). For purposes of compilation of cost of living index numbers, however, the results of the previous enquiries made at Ahmedabad (1926) and Nagpur (1926-27) are still being utilised. A critical study of working class cost of living index numbers prepared by Provincial Governments has been made in the *Supplement to Guide to Current Official Statistics*, Vol. I, published by the Economic Adviser to the Government of India. The defects of these indices were discussed at the Third Conference of Labour Ministers held at New Delhi in January 1942 and the summary of its conclusions may be seen at pages 35 and 36 of the Proceedings. At present, cost of living index numbers are being compiled and published for some 32 centres in the country, including one Indian State, namely, Mysore. The base periods of these indices differ, their composition is not alike, the method of weighting is not the same and the degree of their reliability varies considerably. In the absence of more reliable statistics, however, these figures can be taken as a rough guide in assessing the increase in

the cost of living as compared to the pre-war period. Figures for nine of these centres are being published in the Indian Labour Gazette with August 1939 as base. These are set out below.

TABLE 127.

Cost of Living Indices.

Centre	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944
Bombay	107	118	150	219	226
Ahmedabad	108	119	156	282	290
Sholapur	104	115	155	252	276
Jalgaon	109	123	180	284	295
Nagpur	110	119	165	299	267
Jubbulpore	116	130	183	299	317
Lahore	108	121	171	282	281
Cawnpore	111	123	181	306	314
Madras	109	114	136	180	207

No published figures are available for Bengal and Assam, but from such enquiries as it was possible to make it would appear that in both these Provinces cost of living as compared to the pre-war period has gone up by about 200%. It will thus be seen that the lowest recorded increase has been in Madras which was of the order of 107% as compared to the pre-war period, the highest, excluding Bengal and Assam, being in Jubbulpore and Cawnpore where the rise was over 200% in 1944. There is no doubt that there must be considerable variations in the cost of living and also in the increase in the cost of living as between Province and Province and, for obvious reasons, no generalisation can be attempted in regard to the increase in the cost of living of working classes in India as a whole. The Economic Adviser to the Government of India publishes an all-India index number of wholesale prices of certain selected commodities. This index stood at 241 in August 1945 as compared to August 1939, the index for the food group (revised series) being 239 in August 1945. From the figures cited above it would appear that, as compared to the pre-war period, the increase in the cost of living must be of an order of about 150%, although it may be less in places like Madras and more in places like Cawnpore. One striking feature in this connection is that certain centres such as Nagpur, Cawnpore, etc., in which living was reported to be cheaper before the war have recorded a much higher rise in the price level than places, such as Bombay, which were regarded as very expensive.

The above data must be taken as broadly indicating the rise that has taken place during the war period in the cost of living of the working classes. As stated earlier, however, the precision of the figures is not above doubt. This is so mainly because there has been hardly any uniformity in the methods adopted for sampling the families for Family Budget enquiries or in the composition of the items in the indices or in the method of weighting or in the base periods. Moreover, the information supplied has been vitiated by its meagreness and by the fact that it was confined to a few industrial centres only. Thus, as recently as in 1940

when the Court of Enquiry presided over by Sir B. N. Rao was appointed to investigate the dispute regarding dearness allowance for Railway employees, they found that no reliable information relating to the changes in the cost of living of the working classes was available for any province other than Bombay. They, therefore, recommended that the Government of India should themselves set up an organisation for instituting Family Budget enquiries with a view to compiling reliable cost of living index numbers for *city*, urban and rural centres in the country. Accordingly, the Government of India appointed an Officer (the Director of Cost of living) in 1942 for the preparation and maintenance of working class cost of living index numbers on uniform lines for selected centres. Under this scheme, family budget investigations have been completed or are in progress in some 28 centres in the course of which over 27,000 budgets are expected to be collected and cost of living index numbers under this scheme will be available during the next few months for certain important places in the country.

The following list contains the names of the centres (according to provinces) in which family budget enquiries have been or are being conducted in connection with the All-India Scheme of the Government of India.

	Province.		*Centres.*
1.	Ajmer.	..	Ajmer.
2.	Bengal.	..	Calcutta; Howrah & Bally; Kharagpur; Narayanganj.
3.	Bihar.	..	Monghyr and Jamalpur; Dehri-on-sone; Jamshedpur; Jharia.
4.	Bombay.	..	Bombay; Ahmedabad; Sholapur; Jalgaon.
5.	C.P. & Berar.	..	Akola; Jubbulpore.
6	Delhi.	..	Delhi.
7.	Punjab.	..	Lahore; Ludhiana; Sialkot; Khewra; Dandot.
8.	Sind.	..	Karachi.
	United Provinces.	..	Cawnpore.
10.	Orissa.	..	Cuttack; Berhampur.
11.	Assam.	..	Gauhati; Silchari; Tinsukia.

As, however, the Government of India felt that the cost of living, index scheme must necessarily take some time before its results became available as a guide for practical action and as it was considered that during the war-period occasions may arise when some reliable figures giving an indication of the changes in the retail price level would be urgently required, it was decided to proceed concurrently with a scheme for the compilation of retail price index numbers for certain selected urban and rural centres. Retail price returns are now being received in the Cost of Living Directorate of the Government of India from some 57 urban centres and 15 rural centres and *unweighted* retail price index numbers for some 30 urban and 15 rural centres are being published every month in the Indian Labour Gazette. The Cost of Living Index and Retail Price Index Number Schemes had to be proceeded with during a time when abnormal conditions were prevailing in the country on account of the war and numerous war-time difficulties were to be experienced. The main difficulties were the unavailability of the price quotations for certain important articles comparable with those originally selected,

abnormal fluctuations in prices from week to week, scarcity of supplies, particularly of clothing items, etc.

XXI—*Conclusions.*

The wages and earnings data discussed in this Chapter must be allowed to speak for themselves. Briefly, an analysis of the data shows that both wages and earnings have been considerably affected by conditions created by the War. The subject can best be discussed under two main headings: firstly, the present wage level in important industries, including other elements of income such as the dearness and other allowances, and secondly, the future wage policy in the light of existing wage standards and in the context of the new ideas in regard to the future of labour all over the world.

It is clear that so far as the basic wage level is concerned, it has undergone little or no change in most organised industries. For instance, in the cotton mill industry, certain increases were granted in the basic wages in the year 1938 in all the centres in the Bombay Province and in Cawnpore, although it must be remembered that during the year 1934 there were drastic reductions in many centres of the industry. The jute mill industry gave a rise of 10 per cent in 1939. Among other large employers of labour such as the railways, there has been a levelling-down instead of a levelling-up in the basic wage rates since 1931. As regards plantations in Assam, the average cash earnings of workers are lower than those which prevailed during the investigations of the Royal Commission. On the other hand, in unorganised industries or in industries which developed with remarkable rapidity during the war, e.g., glass, engineering (some centres), potteries, etc., the basic wage level has gone up appreciably, sometimes by more than 100 per cent. Due to shortage of unskilled labour in certain parts of the country, labour also could not be attracted to work without a substantial rise in the wage level. This has happened in those sections of industry in which a considerable proportion of unskilled workers has to be employed, e.g., in Cement, C.P.W.D., etc. Contract labour employed in certain industries, including the building trades, was perhaps for the first time in its history able to bargain for and secure much better wages than ever before and in some cases higher than those employed directly by the concerns. This was, however, a temporary phenomenon.

Unlike certain countries, e.g., the United Kingdom and the United States, wage increases in India have taken the form of the payment of a cash dearness allowance and/or provision of foodstuffs to the workers either at pre-war rates or at 1942 rates. In the principal industries and centres of industries, either concerted action in this matter has been taken by the employers' organisations, or such action has resulted because of the awards of adjudicators or independent tribunals like the Industrial Court of Bombay. This has been a considerable step forward as compared to what happened during World War I, when wages were allowed to lag behind prices for a considerable time with much consequent suffering and distress.[1] In most of the important centres of the cotton mill

[1] See article in the *Indian Labour Gazette* (April 1944) entitled "prices and wages in Bombay City during two World Wars". See also, Dr. A. L. Bowley's articles, "Prices and Wages in three years of War" in the Royal Economic Society's Memorandum No. 92 (November, 1942).

industry, dearness allowance has been linked with the available cost of living index numbers and where such index numbers were not available e.g., in Indore, the employers have based it on the average of index numbers for centres situated in the vicinity. The scale of dearness allowance paid has been the highest in Ahmedabad where workers have been compensated to the full extent of the rise in the cost of living.[1] On the other hand, in Bombay City, workers have been given an allowance equivalent to about 76 per cent of the increase in the cost of living. Speaking generally, in the cotton industry workers have received a much better deal than those employed in similar industries such as jute. Moreover, the example of the cotton industry has influenced wages in some important centres, notably in Bombay and U.P., where other organised industries had to follow its footsteps by the sheer logic of circumstances. A notable example is provided by the jute industry in Cawnpore, which pays dearness allowance nearly three times of that paid in Bengal!

In the jute industry in Bengal and South India, apart from the 10 per cent wage increase granted in 1939, the workers are being compensated for the increase in the cost of living by an allowasce known as an 'amenity' allowance at a flat rate of Rs. 2 per week. In addition, however, jute mill workers receive a subsidy on account of the supply of foodstuffs to the extent of about Rs. 1-2-0 per week. In the Engineering industry, there is no uniformity of practice in regard to reimbursing the workers for the increase in the cost of living and while in some centres wage rates have gone up, in others a cash dearness allowance on a fairly liberal scale has been granted. In plantations, our examination of the wages and earnings data shows that the position has been the least satisfactory, because no dearness allowance as such is given in Assam while in the Bengal & South Indian plantations a cash dearness allowance of an anna or so per day is granted. In Assam, the increase in the cost of living is being met by giving foodstuffs at a concessional rate, the money value of which comes to about Rs. 5-8-0 per month or about 50 per cent. of the monthly cash earnings. In transport industries, the largest single category is of Railway workers. The scale of dearness allowance has been altered from time to time and the latest position is that on State Railways the non-gazetted staff getting below Rs. 40 receive a dearness allowance of 17% of their pay subject to a minimum of between Rs. 12 and Rs. 19 according to the zones in which they work while those whose pay is above Rs. 40 or above get at the same rate, subject to a minimum of between Rs. 14 and Rs. 20. In addition, railway workers get certain commodities of daily consumption at August 1942 prices, the cash value of the benefit being stated to amount to from about Rs. 6 to Rs. 10|8 per month.

In regard to the payment of dearness allowance, there is one healthy principle which is being followed in most cases, namely, that the allowance is paid at a flat rate irrespective of income or on a regressive scale. This has resulted in the low-paid categories of workers securing a much larger quantum of relief than highpaid workers. We may illustrate the point with a few examples. A doffer boy in a Bombay Cotton Mill gets a basic minimum wage of Rs. 16|4|- but receives by way of dearness allowance

[1]Now, since August 1945 dearness allowance is paid at the rate of 76%.

nearly Rs. 30 per month. Similarly, a doffer in Ahmedabad has a basic minimum wage of about Rs. 20, but received at one time a dearness allowance amounting to about Rs. 70 p.m. Again, on the Railways, a gangman in Bombay who receives a basic wage of between Rs. 18 to Rs. 23 obtained relief to the extent of about Rs. 25 for meeting the increased cost of living.

We may now briefly and in a broad manner review the position in regard to real wages. We have already found that the cost of living in the country has gone up by about 150 per cent. as compared to the pre-war period and that the variation in the changes as between centre and centre has been considerable. For instance, while the available information shows that the rise in the cost of living in Madras has been about 100 per cent, that in Bengal and Assam has been more than 200 per cent. In certain industries, in which dearness allowance has been related to the cost of living index numbers, the lower-paid categories of operatives have, in some cases, been able to get relief greater than that warranted by the increase in the cost of living. Not in all industries or in all centres of industries, however, have dearness allowances been commensurate with the increase in the cost of living. Taking a bird's eye view of the real wage position in the country as a whole, it appears that the lowest-paid unskilled workers have not suffered very much owing to the rise in the cost of living. In certain groups of organised industries, such as jute, plantations, mining (excepting one or two sections), the real wage of the worker has definitely declined. Likewise, in the case of the relatively better paid workers, such as semi-skilled and skilled workers, the earnings have generally lagged behind prices, except in certain cases where wage rates have also been increased. In this connection, it is pertinent to note that the above analysis takes no note of the sacrifices entailed upon the community owing to war-time conditions, such as unavailability and scarcity of commodities of daily consumption, transport difficulties etc. At the same time, we must make prominent mention of the fact that owing to the zeal and energy displayed by Governments and employers alike in procuring the necessities of life for the workers, they were in some cases better off than the general community in this respect and were saved especially in Bengal from the terrors of the famine of 1943. While on this subject, though we may refer to the fact that the War no doubt created much fuller employment than before and to that extent probably benefited the industrial classes as a whole, we have no adequate information to enter into adeailed analysis of the subject of family earnings. However, we may point out that fuller employment helping family earnings is a fortuitious circumstance which is extraneous to wage policy.

Future Policy.—It is understood that the Central Government have under contemplation a legislative measure for fixing minimum wages for workers in important trades and industries in this country. The large mass of wage data which we have collected during the course of our investigations seems clearly to show that iirrespective of war-time conditions, the basic wage levels are extremely low. We are of the familiar argument that industrial wages compare favourably with those paid to agricultural workers. We need not enter into the merits of this argument except to point out that indusrial workers live and work under conditions of greater severity and hardship than agricultrual labourers.

Further, the industrial wage level instead of following the agricultural level should give lead to it. It must be remembered that the *employed* worker in agriculture is subject to much less discipline and enjoys certain "net advantages of labour". such as a lower cost of living, free fuel, fresh air etc. That agricultural wages are low, is, therefore, no argument for keeping industrial wages low as well. Secondly, in the new factory constructions in the different industries and in most of the new industries which have recently sprung up, India has naturally utilized the latest discoveries in regard to the technical efficiency of the plants. The wage structure and wage policy, if any, however, continue to remain unscientific. There is little standardization of occupational nomenclature or of wages in the different industries, or even in units in the same centre of an industry. Nor has much consideration been given to determining the differentials in the wage rates as between various occupations in an industry. This, however, does not mean that there are not a few notable exceptions, because in recent years a few associations of employers and individual concerns have made considerable progress in this matter. But taking industrial labour in India, as a whole, expediency and the desire to maintain the *status quo* ante and to think in terms of short-term gain, seem to be the guiding principles, if they can be so called. Such a lack of scientific attitude in the fixation of wages must, in the long run, prove detrimental no less to industries than to labour, especially when the present sheltered position of some of our industries becomes exposed to the attack of both internal and external competition. We consider that this is a matter which deserves early and careful attention.

CHAPTER IX.

INDEBTEDNESS

The Royal Commission discussed the question of indebtedness of industrial workers at considerable length in the Report (pp. 224—42) and also suggested various remedies for the mitigation, if not the total eradication, of this evil. The action taken by the Central and Provincial Governments on their recommendations on the subject has been separately described in the Chapter dealing with Labour Legislation. The Commission complained of the want of reliable statistics on the subject. In the course of our present investigations, however, special efforts were made especially by one of us (Dr. Mukhtar) to collect data on the subject in certain industries. Apart from this, information of a factual character has been available in some of our *ad hoc* reports which has been utilised. We have also drawn liberally upon the data which are being collected at present by the Government of India in the course of their Family Budget enquiries. We shall first of all deal with the information collected for our *ad hoc* surveys and supplement it with other available data on the subject of the indebtedness of the industrial worker.

I—*Indebtedness in Certain Industries.*

Carpet Weaving.—In Mirzapur, where an enquiry into the indebtedness of workers was made on a sample basis, it was seen that 70.8 per cent. of them were in debt. The average debt per indebted person was found to be about Rs. 114, of which 37.7 per cent was due to marriages, the next important cause of indebtedness being domestic needs accounting for 20 per cent. of the total. The workers are indebted to the *karkhandar* who have a regular system of granting advances to them. They generally accept a large sum, say Rs. 100 or Rs. 200, before they join the work at a master-weaver's place. If some other master-weaver wants the services of a weaver who has taken an advance, he generally offers a large advance to enable him to wipe out his previous debt. This system of pre-employment advances leads to perpetual indebtedness. In addition to lump-sum advances, the workers take day-to-day advances against their accounts for domestic needs. The latter accounts are settled every month. Normally, all these advances are interest-free. In addition to the *kharkhandars,* money is also lent by Mahajans, Banias, Pathans and Sikh moneylenders. In Srinagar, it was found that nearly 82 per cent. of the workers were in debt. The average amount of debt per indebted worker was Rs. 130-8-0. As regards the causes of indebtedness it was found that domestic needs accounted for 52 per cent. of the total debt and 60.8 per cent. of the cases of indebtedness. The next most important cause of indebtedness was marriages. One striking feature here, as in Amritsar, is the extent of interest-free debt as most of the money-lenders happen to be Muslims. In Amritsar, over 60 per cent of the workers were found to be indebted. The average amount of per capita indebtedness seemed to be very high.

Tanneries and Leather Goods.—In all the three centres surveyed, namely, Calcutta, Cawnpore and Madras, a very large percentage of the worker was found to be in debt, the percentages being 100, 69.3 and

66.4 respectively. Among the causes of indebtedness, borrowing for ordinary needs accounted for 43 per cent. of all the loans in Madras, while in Cawnpore, marriages were responsible for 40.9 per cent. of the total debt.

Printnig Presses.—The following tabular statement shows the percentage of workers in debt and the average amount of debt per indebted person.

TABLE 128.

Indebtedness in Printing Presses in Selected Centres.

	Lahore	Simla	Delhi	Allahabad	Aligarh	Calcutt	Madras	Bombay.
Percentage in debt	49.7	84	51.3	87.2	80.7	70.1	71.0	68.8
Debt per indebted worker (Rs.)	476	434	330	161	171	247	194	335

In a majority of cases, the rate of interest charged varies between 12½ per cent. and 37½ per cent., although a certain proportion of the debt is interest-free, having been taken either from friends, relatives or from employers.

Shellac.—An overwhelmingly large majority of the workers employed in the Shellac industry in Bihar were found indebted. The main causes of indebtedness were: firstly, the seasonal character of the industry: secondly, the extravagant habits and vices of the workers themselves; and thirdly, the lack of spare-time employment. At Balrampur, it was reported that the Pathans did considerable moneylending business. Their rate of interest is often as high as eight annas per rupee per month, or, roughly, 600 per cent. The interest is collected when wages are paid and if the money is borrowed during the off-season, it is recovered during the working season. Workers also borrow from the employers who do not charge interest, but such cases are rare. Some employers were found running their own grocery shops and workers were asked to buy foodstuffs from these shops instead of borrowing money. In the industry in Bengal, few of the workers are indebted to any substantial extent. There is no system of granting advances by the employers.

Bidi Making.—In the bidi-making industry in the Bombay Province, every worker was found to be in debt, the average figure of indebtedness being Rs. 300. The source of borrowing was usually the Pathan, the rate of interest is often as high as eight annas per rupee per month, or, Madras Province too, we found that most of the *bidi* workers were indebted. The family budget enquiry in Madras City in 1936 showed that 58.06 per cent. of the *bidi* workers were indebted and that the average indebtedness per family was Rs. 41-4-8. Our enquiries showed that the incidence of indebtedness of these workers had increased by nearly 50 per cent. In Bengal, the sample survey reveals that nearly 70% of the workers are in debt, the average per capita incidence of debt being Rs. 70. The main causes of indebtedness are in sufficiency of earnings, sickness, and funeral expenses.

Sugar.—Enquiries conducted in the different units of the industry reveal that a very high proportion of the workers is in debt. The following summary table shows the position at a glance.

TABLE 129.

Indebtedness in Sugar Industry

Centre.	Percentage of workers in debt.	Average indebtedness per indebted person. Rs.
Ahmednagar ..	64.0	159
Meerut ..	78.5	390
Gorakhpore ..	80.0	191
Champaran ..	74.7	225
Dharbanga ..	86.5	182
Madras ..	74.0	141

Marriages and domestic needs appear to be the two most important causes of indebtedness. We, however, found that in Meerut, Gorakpur, and Dharbhanga, respectively 21.8 per cent., 14.3 per cent. and 10.6 per cent. of the indebtedness were due to purchase of land and cattle. In Ahmednagar, 39.5 per cent. of the indebtedness was due to domestic needs, the percentage in the case of Madras being 34.4.

Rice Mills.—Workers in rice mills in Madras either borrow from moneylenders or local shopkeepers paying interest at the rate of one anna per rupee per month. No reliable data regarding indebtedness of workers in rice mills in Bengal could be obtained. The employers, however, occasionally grant loans to workers free of interest but of necessity this is limited to the permanent monthly paid staff. There does not appear to be much indebtedness among rice mill workers in Bihar. As a class, they do not wish to borrow and the tendency is to pull on with whatever income they get. Moreover, a fair proportion of the labour owns agricultural land and income from factory is often only very subsidiary. We found that almost all the workers employed in rice mills in Orissa were indebted to the employer, the monthly paid worker to the extent of Rs. 100 on an average, the *kata* worker up to Rs. 25 and other workers up to Rs. 10 per head. Some workers also borrow from the local moneylenders. The main reason that forces the worker to incur debt is extravagance at the time of the marriage of his son or daughter. Indebtedness is also due to sickness and drink. In the Province of Bombay there is a system of paying weekly advances in most of the mills. The advances are recovered at the end of the month. Apart from this, some employers give loans of a long term character to needy workers mainly for marriages or similar purposes either free of interest or at nominal rate of interest. The amounts range from Rs. 100 to Rs. 400.

Cotton Ginning and Baling.—In this industry, in spite of the great poverty of the workers at Tirupur, we found that they disliked running into debt. Advances are not given by the employers and where loans are taken they are from retail merchants in the villages. The rates of interest paid vary from ¼ to 2 per cent. per mensem. The factories in

Coimbatore, give loans to the workers. For instance, one factory gives loans and charges interest at two annas a rupee per month. In such cases the interest for a certain period is deducted from the advance and the balance is paid to the worker.

Manganese Mining.—The extent of indebtedness among workers in manganese mines in the Central Provinces, which is the principle centre of manganese production, is not very large and the average amount of debt is usually below Rs. 10. Money is borrowed principally from contractors and occasionally from local moneylenders and co-workers. Contractors do not charge any interest but in other cases the maximum rate of interest is one anna per rupee per month or 75 per cent per annum. Contractors recover their loans in small amounts such as four annas per week or so.

Mica Mining.—Labour in the Bihar mica mines is indebted either to the employers or to moneylenders in their villages. The employers do not charge interest on the advances they make but the moneylenders charge Re. 1 every six months for every Rs. 5 lent. This works out to a rate of interest of 40 per cent per annum. We found that most of the workers in mica mines in Madras were indebted. Part of the indebtedness takes the form of advances taken from the employers. Workers sometimes avoid liability to repay the debt by running away even without paying the principal. About 75% of the workers were found to be indebted to shop-keepers, the average indebtedness being Rs. 25 to Rs. 30 per head. The drinking evil, which is rampant here, is a potent cause of indebtedness. As far as could be ascertained, the incidence of indebtedness is low among the Rajputana miners and their economic position is considerably better than that of miners in Bihar and Madras. It is only for marriage celebrations or during periods of illness that workers have to resort to borrowing. Here also, the mine owners lend small sums to their employees without charging interest. It is understood that the people of Rajputana regard borrowing of money as derogatory to their self-respect and prefer to suffer hardships as far as possible rather than become indebted.

Iron Ore Mining.—It was not found possible to collect accurate data regarding indebtedness relating to workers employed in the Iron Ore Mining Industry. At Gua in Bihar, it was stated by the managements that only a small proportion of the workers was probably indebted. The workers in this centre stated that they did not like to incur debts and preferred to starve rather than to borrow. With a view to having a hold on the workers, recruiting Sirdars sometimes lend money to them. The Sirdars recover the advances they make by deductions from the wages for both the principal and the interest. Interest is charged at the rate of one anna per rupee per week or more than 300 per cent. per annum. The amount of indebtedness is usually Rs. 5 to Rs. 10, but, in some cases, it is as high as Rs. 50 or more.

Salt Mining.—In the course of a family budget enquiry conducted among workers in the salt mines at Khewra, it was found that 79 per cent of the total were in debt. The amount of debt varies from Rs. 15 to Rs. 2,800, the average debt per family being nearly Rs. 300. In about 25 per cent of the cases. Such which relate to what is known as *'hath*

udhar' i.e., temporary loans no interest is charged. In other cases the rate of interest varies from six per cent to as much as 75 per cent. In many cases, debts are due to credit purchases made by the miners from time to time from the local shopkeepers. One of the important contributory causes of the indebtedness of workers at Khewra has been the repayment of house building advances.

Gold Mining.—Enquiries made among the workers in the Kolar Gold Field showed that nearly half the workers were in debt. Those indebted were to be found mostly in income groups below Rs. 35 per month. It should be stated here that the average family of a gold miner consists of about 5.25 persons and, unlike industrial workers in other places, there is only one earner in the family as there is not much scope for the employment of either women or children. As in the coal mines, in the Gold Mines at Kolar, the workers spend a disproportionate amount of their income on drinking toddy. Apart from this, social customs are contributory causes of indebtedness.

The amount of debt varies from a month's wages to four months' wages and the usual rate of interest paid is as. 2 to as. 4 per month per rupee for a wage period which is about a fortnight. The money advanced is generally on personal security only. The principal moneylenders are Marwaris and petty shopkeepers. It is understood that some of the well-to-do workers also clandestinely ply the moneylending trade.

According to the Mysore Moneylenders' Act, XIII, of 1939, all moneylenders have to take a license and are prevented from charging interest at more than 9 per cent per annum. It is, however, understood that the Act is being circumvented and that Government of Mysore are aware of it. The Mysore Code of Civil Procedure has recently been amended and forbids the attachments of wages below Rs. 50 per month.

Non-Gazetted Railway Services.—During the course of our investigations a special attempt was made to enquire into the indebtedness of railway workers in certain important centres. The information collected is presened in the following table:—

TABLE 130.

Percentage of Railway Workers in Debt and the Distribution of indebted workers in Selected Centres.

1	2		3		4		5		6		7	
Centre	Persons in debt		Persons free of debt		Debt upto Rs. 50 and Rs. 100		Debt between Rs. 51		Debt between Rs, 101 & Rs. 200		Debt over Rs. 200	
	No.	% to total	No.	% of total	No.	% of Col. 2	No.	% of Col. 2	No.	% of Col. 2	No.	% of Col. 2
Lahore	111	25.4	326	74.6	3	2.7	18	16.2	23	20.7	67	60.4
Goya Gate	35	35	65	65.0	10	28.6	11	31.4	8	22.9	6	17.1
Dinanagar	15	36.6	26	63.4	4	26.65	4	26.65	6	40.0	1	6.7
Bombay & Narsingpur ...	148	69.5	65	30.5	20	13.5	24	16.2	45	30.4	59	39.9
Villupuram	51	77.3	15	22.7	4	7.8	10	19.6	11	21.6	26	51.0
Shoranur	79	80.6	19	19.4	6	7.6	21	26.6	24	30.4	28	35.4
Madras	67	61.5	42	38.5	4	6.0	14	20.9	26	38.8	28	34.3
Kharagpur	129	70.9	53	29.1	30	23.3	27	20.9	26	20.2	46	35.6
Chakradarpur ...	63	63.0	37	37.0	15	23.8	10	15.9	5	7.9	33	52.4

TABLE 131.

Extent of Indebtedness under different Causes among sampled Railway Workers

(Absolute amount is in Rs. and percentages are shown in brackets)

Centres	Marriage	Sickness	Death	Purchase of land.	Litigation	Domestic needs.	Ancestral	Miscellaneous
Lahore ...	325 (18)	338 (17.6)	246 (2.2)	... ...	2993 (19.1)	235 (32.7)	150 (0.3)	1162 (10.1)
Goya Gate ...	134.1 (16.3)	450 (18.2)	125 (18.2)	... ...	125 (5.0)	100 (42.3	... ...	... ...
Dinanagar ...	20.2 (49.5)	14.0 (34.3)	... ...	... ...	... ...	55 (16.2)	... ...	... ...
Bombay & Narsingpur	327 (40.9)	195 (15.2)	188 (4.5)	40 (0.1)	79 (1.5)	100 (27.8)	121 (3.4)	933 (6.6)
Villupuram ...	486 (21.3)	80 (0.4)	... ...	... ...	1000 (17.9)	294 (46.1)	227 (9.2)	575 (5.1)
Shoranur... ...	458.3 (13.4)	212.5 (4.2)	75 (0.7)	... ...	304 (7.4)	220.0 (67.7)	450 (4.4)	225 (2.2)
Madras	324 (27.4)	183 (3.1)	190 (5.4)	... ...	255 (14.4)	202 (46.8)	590 (2.9)	... ...
Kharagpur ...	428 (48.5)	225 (8.1)	313 (3.2)	293 (8.3)	170 (1.3)	197 (29.7)	... ...	450 (1.2)
Chakradarpur ...	502 (54.0)	217 (2.8)	35 (0.3)	395 (6.8)	... ...	170 (28.4)	700 (3.0)	400 (3.2)

It will be seen that railway workers are no less indebted than other sections of the working class community. An analysis of the causes of indebtedness *vide* (Table 131) shows that borrowing for domestic needs constitutes the largest percentage of the total debt. Thus, at Goya Gate, for instance, it was found that 42.3 per cent of the borrowing was for domestic needs. At Chakradarpur, Dinanagar, Kharagpur and Bombay, it was found that much of the indebtedness was due to marriages. Sickness accounts for a very high percentage (34.3) of the total indebtedness at Dinanagar which is a malarious place. The incidence of borrowing for sickness was also found to be fairly high at Bombay, Lahore and Goya Gate. Litigation was another important cause of borrowing in certain important centres like Lahore, Villupuram and Madras. Nearly 50 per cent of the loans taken at Lahore and Dinanagar are free of interest. The percentage of loans bearing interest at 18½ per cent is the highest at Goya Gate where the railway administration has not provided any co-operative society. On 33.7 per cent of the loans at Bombay and 38.5 per cent of the loans at Kharagpur the rate of interest charged was found to be over 37½ per cent. Co-operative societies have played an important part in the provision of loans at low rates of interest on the railways. It is, however, seen that railway employees borrow both from co-operative societies and moneylenders.

Tramways and Bus Services.—The survey of indebtedness in this industry showed that of the families covered, 63.1 per cent in Karachi, 87.9 per cent in Bombay and 60.1 per cent in Madras respectively were indebted. The average amount of debt per indebted family was Rs. 280 in Karachi, Rs. 409 in Bombay and Rs. 301 in Madras. Among the causes of indebtedness, marriages and domestic needs accounted for the largest percentage of the total debt. In Karachi, for instance, 40.5 per cent. of the indebtedness was due to marriages and 36.8 per cent. to domestic needs, the corresponding percentages for Bombay being 30.4 and 29.2 and for Madras 23.4 and 53.2 respectively. *In both Bombay and* Madras, over 13 per cent. of the indebtedness was for the repayment of ancestral and other debts.

Plantations.—It would appear that on the tea plantations in Assam, the employers generally make cash advances to the workers against their wages. In the view of the Indian Tea Association the indebtedness of the workers has gone down and it is pointed out that in the Surma Valley the advances amounted to only Rs. 35,000 in 1938 for a labour force of 1,51,000. No information is available regarding the workers' indebtedness to outside moneylenders. From the enquiries made for purposes of the present investigation it appears that the average indebtedness per head *to the garden* is very small varying from a few annas to Rs. 3 or Rs. 4. The average was, however, somewhat higher in the Indian-owned gardens. In the plantations in Bengal also reliable information about indebtedness to moneylenders was not available. The source of credit is mainly the Estate itself and no interest is charged by it. Information collected regarding indebtedness from seven estates in Dooars showed that the average debt to the estate varied from a few annas to about Rs. 9. The usual borrowers are the carters who take loans from the estates for purchase of bullocks. The loans taken by Sardars and labourers are generally on account of marriages and other social ceremonies. In the Dooars, there

are no professional moneylenders. In Terai and Darjeeling, no indebtedness to the estates was noticed. Enquiries made regarding indebtedness in the South Indian Plantations showed that the workers were in debt either to the Kangany or the local shop-keeper nearly to the extent of and, in some cases, more than their credit balances in the checkroll at that time. It was also found that at the time of the annual settlement of wages almost all the workers owed to the Kangany amounts varying from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30 in addition to what some of them owed to the local shop-keepers.

II—Indebtedness in Certain Centres

The foregoing facts were based upon the material collected by us through the *ad hoc surveys*. Apart from these, data were also collected, as stated earlier, through the family budget enquiries of the Director of Cost of Living. In what follows we discuss the provisional results of these enquiries, so far as indebtedness of industrial workers is concerned. As the enquiries were conducted centre-wise and not industry-wise, the following information is also presented centre-wise.

In Bombay City, it was found that about 63 per cent of the workers' families were in debt. The amount of indebtedness varies from Rs. 10 to over Rs. 700. The average debt per family comes to Rs. 129. Nearly 1|5th of the families pay no interest on the debt incurred because the debt is in the nature of temporary accommodation from friends, etc. There is a very wide range in the rate of interest paid which varies from 1½ per cent to 225 per cent. The money is generally borrowed from shop-keepers, moneylenders, cooperative societies and from friends and relatives. Among the causes mentioned for borrowing are sickness, marriages, funerals, unemployment, festivals, etc.

In spite of the liberal dearness allowance granted in the cotton textile industry in Ahmedabad, the enquiry revealed that as many as 57 per cent of the workers' families were in debt. The minimum amount of debt was Rs. 20, the maximum being Rs. 6,000. The average debt per family came to Rs. 266|8|-. Here again, nearly 1|5th of the families paid no interest but in the case of those who did, the rate of interest varied from 3 per cent to 300 per cent. The money is borrowed from money-lenders, co-operative credit societies and from friends. The causes of borrowing were sickness, festivals, marriages, funerals, unemployment etc. It may be noted in this connection that owing to social customs prevailing in Gujrat, the Ahmedabad worker has to spend a much larger amount on marriages and funerals than, say, in the Marathi-speaking districts of Bombay Province.

In Sholapur, which is the third largest centre of cotton manufacture in Bombay Province, the percentage of families in debt is as high as 84. The basic wage level, as will be seen from the chapter dealing with wages, is much lower in Sholapur than in the other major cotton textile centres in Bombay Province. The minimum debt was reported to be Rs. 3 and the maximum nearly Rs. 5,000. The average debt per indebted family comes to Rs. 234. Nearly one-fifth of the families paid no interest. When paid, varied from 1 per cent to 150 per cent. Moneylenders, co-operative societies, friends and relatives were the sources from which loans were taken, and the causes of indebtedness were the same as in the

other centres, namely, sickness, marriages, unemployment, funerals, festivals, etc.

In another, but a smaller cotton manufacturing centre, namely, Jalgaon, the enquiry revealed that 52 per cent. of the families were in debt, the amount of debt varying from Rs. 15 to Rs. 1,200 the average debt per family being Rs. 172-10-1. Loans were interest-free in the case of over 25 per cent of the workers. Others paid interest varying from 2½ to 37½ per cent.

In regard to Bengal, the second largest industrial Province in the country, an enquiry made by Prof. P. C. Mahalanobis in regard to the cost and standard of living of jute mill workers at Jagaddal in 1941 showed that nearly 90 per cent. of the families were in debt. Over one-third of the families paid no interest but, in the case of others, interest ranged from 5 per cent to 185 per cent. The average amount of debt was about Rs. 122. It was found during this investigation that, so far as indebtedness was concerned, families were considerably worse-off than single men

There is available also a small study made during the pre-war period by Mr. Roy Choudhry in regard to Jute mill workers. Assuming that Mr. Choudhry had obtained a representative sample, his enquiry showed that 76 per cent. of the families were in debt and the average amount of indebtedness came to Rs. 91 or about 2½ times the average monthly family income. The comparison of these two studies seems to show that the jute mill worker is more indebted today than during the pre-war period. This is understandable in view of the fact that in the jute mill Industry the allowances granted including the value of good-grain concessions hardly equals the basic wage while the cost of living in Bengal has gone up by nearly 200 per cent as compared to the pre-war period.

In Monghyr and Jamalpur, which has a large railway workshop, it was found that as many as 74 per cent. of the workers families were in debt, the minimum debt being a couple of rupees and the maximum Rs. 1,250. The average debt per family was Rs. 157|1|4. One fifth of the families paid no interest on their loans, but those who did had to pay interest varying from 1½ per cent. to 150 per cent. In this centre, apart from other sources from which loans were taken such as Banias, Co-operative Societies, etc., employers and shop-keepers were prominently mentioned. Among the causes of indebtedness, ordinary wants, apart from marriages and funerals, were emphasized.

The enquiry in another centre in Bihar, namely, Dehri-on-Sone, in which the Dalmias have their factories, revealed that 53 per cent of the families were in debt, the amount of debt varying from a couple of rupees to over Rs 1,000. The average debt per family was Rs. 156|6|8. Thirty-six per cent of the families reported that they paid no interest while the rate of interest for others varied from 2 per cent to 150 per cent. The sources of borrowing were the same as in other centres but among the causes of indebtedness prominently mentioned was unemployment.

Information regarding indebtedness of industrial workers in Nagpur is available in the Report on a Family Budget Enquiry conducted

during 1941-42 by the Commissioner of Labour, Central Provinces and Bihar.[1] This enquiry showed that about 82 per cent. of the families were indebted, the over-all average of indebtedness being about Rs. 139 which was more than four times the average monthly income. The enquiry also showed that the percentage of indebtedness amongst workers employed in different industries varied considerably being 89.9 in the case of Railway Workshop, 82.3 in the case of textile mills, 72.5 in the case of Engineering Works and presses and 70.4 in the case of Class Works and Potteries. In the case of Railway Workshop the ratio of average debt to average monthly income per indebted family was as high as 10.31. The Report states that "owing probably to the comparative security of railway service and to the borrowing facilities offered by the Bengal-Nagpur Railway Employees Urban Bank, Ltd., not only is the percentage of indebted families the highest in the Railway Workshop, but the average debt is also the largest."[2] It is pointed out that money required for occasional but irregular expenditure such as that required for marriages is generally borrowed from reputable moneylenders who charge a moderate rate of interest and allow easy terms of repayment. On the other hand, loans required for ordinary day-to-day needs are generally taken from Banias, Pathans, friends, etc. In Nagpur arrangements exist for giving loans to workers on easy terms in the Empress Mills and also in the Railway Workshop.

Enquiries were also made in two other centres in the Central Provinces, namely, Akola and Jubbulpore. In Akola 87 per cent. of the families were found to be in debt, the amount varying from a couple of rupees to over Rs. 600 the debt per family being Rs. 103|12|3. Slightly over a quarter of the families paid no interest but others had to pay interest varying from 9 per cent. to 150 per cent. Among the sources from which loans were taken employers were prominently mentioned. The causes of indebtedness were sickness, funerals, marriages and unemployment. At Jubbulpore, the enquiry revealed that 59 per cent of the families were in debt the amount of debt varying from Re. 1 to Rs. 2,000, the average debt per family being Rs. 98|1|8. Forty per cent. of the families reported that they paid no interest on loans, but for others the rate varied from 1 per cent to 150 per cent. Among the sources from which loans were taken, moneylenders, contractors, relatives and employers were mentioned. The causes of indebtedness were sickness, marriages, funerals and unemployment.

Information was collected for three centres in the Punjab, namely, Lahore, Ludhiana and Sialkot. In Lahore, 43 per cent of the families were found to be indebted, the minimum debt being Rs. 5 and the maximum Rs. 2,040. The average debt per family was Rs. 251|-|1. Surprisingly enough, 68 per cent of the families reported that they did not pay any interest on the loans taken. The rate of interest for others varied from 3 per cent to 84 per cent. The sources of borrowing were the same as in other centres, namely, shop-keepers, moneylenders, etc. The

[1]Report of the Enquiry into the Family Budgets of the Industrial workers of Nagpur, 1941-42, Bulletin No. 1.

[2]Pages 34-35 of the Report.

causes of indebtedness were also the same as in other centres, namely, marriages, funerals, sickness and unemployment. In Ludhiana which is a flourishing centre of the hosiery trade, only 21 per cent of the families were found to be in debt the amount of debt varying from Rs. 15 to Rs. 1,300, the average debt per family being Rs. 334|2|8. Here again, a very large percentage of the families, namely, 44% reported that they did not pay interest. In the case of others, the rate varied from 7 per cent to 60 per cent. The sources from which loans were taken and the causes of indebtedness were the same as in Lahore. In Sialkot, which is known for its sports goods trade, only 38 per cent. of the families were found to be in debt, the amount of debt varying from Rs. 15 to Rs. 1,900. The average debt per family was Rs. 224|-|2. Here, an astoundingly large proportion namely 74 per cent. reported that they paid no interest. Families which had to pay interest paid it at a rate varying from 6¼ per cent to 150 per cent. In this centre it was mentioned that apart from the usual sources for taking loans such as Banias and shopkeepers, the workers borrowed money from landlords, Mutual Savings Fund Societies, etc. It is possible that large proportions of families in the Punjab could borrow without paying any interest because in this Province, with its majority of Muslim population, lending money at interest by a Muslim is considered objectionable on religious grounds.

In Karachi, 59 per cent. of the families were found to be in debt, the amount of debt varying from Rs. 10 to Rs. 3,500. The average debt per family was Rs. 197|12|2. Here again, an astoundingly large percentage, namely 84% reported that they paid no interest. The rate of interest in the case of those who paid it varied from 12 per cent. to 150 per cent. Among the sources from which loans were taken employers were prominently mentioned in Karachi. In this centre among the causes of indebtedness, litigation and excess of expenditure over income were prominently mentioned.

The only centre in India which showed the lowest percentage of indebted families of industrial workers was Ajmer which has a large population of railway workers. The results of the tabulation of the Family Budget Enquiry for this centre showed that only 8.78 per cent of the families were in debt. The amount of debt varied from Rs. 2 to Rs. 1,000, the average debt per indebted family being Rs. 271|4|5. In about 9 per cent of the cases no interest was paid; otherwise, the rate of interest varied from 2 per cent to 48 per cent. The most prominent sources of borrowing were the Railway Co-operative Society and the Co-operative Bank.

From a Family Budget Enquiry made in Madras in 1935, it would appear that 90 per cent of the families were in debt at the time of the enquiry and the average amount spent towards repayment of debts each month was nearly 13.2 per cent of the average monthly income. The average indebtedness per family was Rs. 262|3|11. The main cause of indebtedness was ordinary wants accounting for 32.21 per cent of total indebtedness. Marriages came next in importance accounting for 27.70 per cent. It was found that the rate of interest charged on loans varied from 12 per cent to 150 per cent, the most frequent rate being 75 per cent per annum or 1 anna per rupee per month.

III—*Conclusion*

The above analysis of indebtedness of the industrial workers unfolds a grim story of his economic degradation. In some cases, indebtedness may no doubt be due to extravagance, vice and improvidence, but it would appear that the root cause of the evil is the want of any margin left for meeting expenditure of an unforeseen character. It is true that one of the main causes of indebtedness is the expenditure incurred on marriage, funeral, etc. There is a tendency to regard such expenditure as mere extravagance but it has to be remembered that the worker is a part of a social organisation and has perforce to conform to certain customary social standards even when he is not in a position to do so. In these matters the individual is often helpless because in a country like India, custom is not only King but tyrant as well. In spite of the remedial measures suggested by the Royal Commission, some of which have already been implemented, the indebtedness of the industrial worker in this country does not seem to be diminishing. A war-time development which has been referred to already regarding the opening of grain shops by employers and the supply of provisions at cost price must have considerably helped large sections of the industrial population to avoid getting into the clutches of the moneylender and the shopkeeper, and this is a development which even in peace time, is worthy of being continued in order to safeguard the interests of the workers. But the more fundamental need is that the worker should be able to earn enough not only to meet his day-to-day wants but to have some margin for saving which can be utilised for unforeseen expenditure and also for certain conventional necessities such as expenditure during marriages etc. While it is true that, so long as the present wage levels do not undergo a radical alteration in the upward direction credit should not be made too easy, there would appear to be great scope for co-operative credit societies and workers' savings funds. For these to succeed, however, it is necessary—as will be seen from the example of some successful societies of industrial workers,—that the employers should take a lead and maintain a watchful interest in their affairs.

CHAPTER X

HOUSING.

I—*Introductory*

The economic and social significance of housing has been studied by American and Continental writers. In Germany enquiries devoted to the choice and location of industries brought into prominence the conception of housing as, in itself, the greatest industry of all. We, in India, are still very far behind in this respect, as housing here has, with the exception of a few enlightened employers, meant little more than a mere accumulation of bricks and mortar or bricks and mud in a more or less symmetrical form. 'Modern housing' is thus described by Catherine Bauer[1]:—" 'Modern Housing' let us say, has certain qualities and embodies certain methods and purposes, which distinguish it sharply from the typical residential environment of the past century. For one thing, it is built for efficient use over a period of years: therefore, it is not designed primarily for quick profits. It is 'planned': and so it must be non-speculative. This new housing method recognizes that the integral unit for planning, the economical unit for construction and administration, and the social unit for living, is the complete neighbourhood, designed and equipped as such. A modern housing development does not, therefore, constitute a mere mechanical extension of streets and agglomeration of individual, competitive dwellings. It has a beginning and an end, and some sort of visible, organic form. One part is related to another part, and each part serves a particular, predestined use. It can never deteriorate into a slum, or a 'blighted area', or a case for expensive remedial 'city planning'. Moreover, modern housing provides certain minimum amenities for every dwelling: cross-ventiliation for one thing; sun-light, quiet, and a pleasant outlook from every window, adequate privacy, space, and sanitary facilities, children's play space adjacent. And finally it will be available at a price which citizens of average income or less can afford". On such premises, how many workmen's quarters are there in India which might be termed 'modern housing'? Perhaps none at all or so few that their number is like a drop in the ocean. It may even be said without the least fear of contradiction that the full economic and social significance of housing has not been appreciated in this country and "although it is not true that any social economic order which could produce good housing would be *ipso facto* a good system, it is certainly true that any arrangement which cannot do so is a reactionary and anti-social one".[2]

A reference to the Census Reports shows that there has been a constant drift into cities and towns in recent decades. While old cities like Bombay, Calcutta and Ahmedabad have grown in population, small towns and even undeveloped urban areas also have come into prominence. In response to the increasing demand for houses, the individual was allowed liberty to exploit himself and the community while the State merely imposed certain limitations in respect of health and sanitation. The result is evident in the chaos, dirt and squalor of accumulated dwellings, which

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[1]Catherine Bauer: *Modern Housing* p. xv.

[2]*Ibid*, p. xvii.

have grown haphazardly, though a few enlightened employers and local bodies have no doubt shown some appreciation of the subject. The Indian Industrial Commission urged the importance of improving the health and housing of the industrial population. "The problem, not only on moral grounds but also for economic reasons", they wrote, "must be solved without delay, if the existing and future industries of India are to hold their own against the ever-growing competition. No industrial edifice can be permanent which is built on such unsound foundations as those afforded by Indian labour under its present conditions".[1]

About a decade after the submission of their report by the Industrial Commission, the Royal Commission on Labour found that the situation as regards housing continued to be as bad as ever. The Commission wrote: "In the urban and industrial areas, cramped sites, the high value of land and the necessity for the worker to live in the vicinity of his work have all tended to intensify congestion and overcrowding. In the busiest centres, the houses are built close together, eave touching eave, and frequently back to back in order to make use of all the available space. Indeed, space is so valuable that, in place of streets and roads, narrow and winding lanes provide the only approach to the houses. Neglect of sanitation is often evidenced by heaps of rotting garbage, and pools of sewage, whilst the absence of latrines enhances the general pollution of air and soil. Houses, many without plinths, windows and adequate ventilation, usually consist of a single small room, the only opening being a doorway often too low to enter without stooping. In order to secure some privacy, old kerosene tins and gunny bags are used to form screens which further restrict the entrance of light and air. In dwellings such as these, human beings are born, sleep and eat, live and die[2]". The Commission made elaborate recommendations regarding provision of better types of houses with adequate space, ventilation and light, latrines, drainage and other sanitary arrangements. They also specified the role of Government, Local Boards and Municipalities, Employers and Co-operative Societies in respect of industrial housing. Despite these recommendations, no appreciable improvement in housing in general has taken place. The employers took up the provision of houses, but most of these were neither adequate in number nor satisfactory in the matter of sanitation, structure, etc. Government remained indifferent in the matter except for the enactment of the Land Acquisition Act facilitating the acquisition of land for housing purposes. The Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee justifiably wrote: "Despite the attention previously bestowed on the question and the recommendations made by the Royal Commission, it has to be recorded that the last decade has witnessed no appreciable change for the better in the matter of housing in the various centres of the cotton textile industry in the province".[3]

Going through the material before us, we cannot but come to the conclusion that the statement referred to above is no less true of the present conditions throughout the country. Very little by way of pro-

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[1]Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, 1919, pp. 179-180.

[2]Report of the Royal Commission on Labour in India, pp. 271-272.

[3]Report of *the Bombay Textile Labour* Inquiry Committeee, Vol. II, p. 268.

viding more and better houses for industrial labour has been done either by Government or Municipalities. Employers have no doubt made some contribution to better housing by erecting lines, tenements or small cottages in certain induustrial centres. The houses erected by them differ greatly from one another and only a small percentage of workers are, on the whole, accommodated in them. It may, however, be said that employers' tenements are, all things considered, far superior to the slums which have been allowed to develop in cities. The smaller employers do not and perhaps cannot erect any dwellings for their workers. The bigger employers have given some attention to the subject but a perusal of our *ad hoc* survey reports in respect of different industries would show that the housing conditions in general are far from satisfactory. Most of the employers still cling to the old, discredited argument that housing *conditions in industrial areas are no worse than conditions in villages* wherefrom the workers are drawn. They hold that the migratory character of labour acts as a bar to the construction of good and permanent houses, little realising that bad and insanitary houses themselves drive the workers to the rural areas off and on. It is no doubt true that the housing conditions in an ordinary Indian village are very unsatisfactory, but most of them have courtyards which afford some privacy and provide a certain amount of light and air. Moreover, the large, open spaces around the villages are in themselves health-giving. "The sunshine in the daytime is nature's disinfectant which saves the agricultural population to a large extent from the ravages of sickness and disease. In the larger towns, there is neither space nor sunshine between the buildings and, in the absence of adequate arrangements for sanitation, the home of the worker is apt to become a veritable death-trap from which it is only natural that he should escape by returning whenever possible to his village".[1]

If the present-day industrial worker in India is physically inefficient and unhealthy, the intolerable housing conditions are in no mean degree responsible for it. Housing and health are inter-connected and they both influence industrial efficiency. The overcrowding of people in dark, ill-ventilated quarters in industrialised cities is also an important contributory cause of infant mortality and tuberculosis. Thus, the Assistant Director of Public Health, in his Annual Health Report for New Delhi for 1934, remarks: "It behoves all concerned to notice that the incidence of tuberculosis is steadily rising..... It is evident that this menace to public health is on the increase and it would go on increasing until living conditions in the clerks' and menials' quarters improve. A large number of these are greatly overcrowded....." The remarks in respect of New Delhi, apply, *a fortiori*, to conditions in several towns in India. The Chief Medical Officer of the B.B. & C.I. Railway also points out that tuberculosis is on the increase among railway employees and their families due to bad housing conditions, overcrowding and unhygienic habits. The unhealthy and unattractive housing conditions

[1]Government of India's Memorandum to the Royal Commission on Labour. (See *Evidence*, Part I, p. 271).

force the workers to leave their families in the villages and stay alone in the cities. This leads to a great disparity in the ratio between the two sexes and the consequent evils of promiscuity, prostitution, and venereal disease, spreading first in the cities and later in the villages where the workers migrate. Overcrowded tenements have a cramping effect upon the physical and mental development of workers and their families. They do not make proper provision for the separation of the sexes which according to accepted civilised standards, is essential to decency. No attempt at raising the standard of living of the industrial worker can be successful without an early solution of the housing problem. It may be mentioned here that, when a facory is started in an urban area, the usual tendency on the part of employer is to leave the unskilled employees to their own resources as regards housing accommodation, while an attempt is made to house only the semi-skilled workers if there is any difficulty in their case. If, on the other hand, an employer establishes his concern in a rural or semi-urban area, he takes some care to see that his workers are housed, of course with the exception of such men as can afford to come every day from the neighbouring villages.

II—*Housing of the Urban Worker*

We shall now proceed to describe in some detail housing conditions in principal urban areas, taking a bird's-eye view of the position in regard to different industries in these areas. For this purpose in what follows we take up six important industrial urban centres, viz., Bombay, Ahmedabad, Calcutta, Cawnpore, Madras and Jamshedpur.

A. *Bombay*

The population of Bombay stood at 11,61,383 in 1931. In 1941, it increased to 14,89,883 though at present it is estimated to be over 20 lakhs due to conditions created by the last war. The typical working-class dwelling in Bombay is the *chawl,* a pucca building 3 to 4 storeys high with a central passage or a common verandah leading generally to one room tenements. Of the housing schemes in Bombay the more important are the industrial housing scheme of the Government of Bombay, and housing scheme of the Municipal Corporation and the Bombay Port Trust. These, along with employers' *chawls,* are described below.

Industrial Housing Scheme.—After the Great War of 1914-18, the problem of improving the housing conditions of working classes in the city and island of Bombay became very acute and Government launched an industrial housing scheme under the auspices of the late Development Department. This scheme comprises at present 207 chawls of 80 rooms each (with one exception which has 64 rooms) in the following four different areas:—

TABLE 132.

Industrial Housing Scheme in Bombay.

Name of area	Number of chawls.	No. of chawl superintendents.
Worli ..	121	7
Naigaum ..	42	2
Delisle Road ..	32	2
Sewri ..	12	1

The chawls contain 16,244 living rooms and 300 shops. For a long time, the Worli *Chawls* in particular were largely un-occupied, although situated close to the sea. As a result of the efforts of the Congress Ministry in 1938, Rs. 349 lakhs have already been spent on the acquisition of land, structural alterations and improvements and provision of additional amenities. The net annual income from the scheme is about Rs. 6 lakhs which covers at present a reasonable rate of interest on the capital investment. The rents charged are Rs. 5 per month per room in the Worli *chawls;* Rs. 7 in the Naigaum *chawls;* Rs. 8 in the Delisle Road *chawls;* and Rs. 7 in the Sewri *chawls.* An extra rupee is charged for all corner rooms in the *chawls.* Rooms are let out on the production of an employment certificate from the employer concerned and, as far as possible, *chawls* are let out on a community basis. Measures against sub-letting have not yet been devised and evictions for the non-payment of rent are rare, as the rent is treated as land-revenue under the Bombay City Land Revenue Act. A large number of welfare activities under the auspices of the local municipal corporation and certain philanthropic institutions are carried on in these *chawls.* One room was occupied by 5 adults on an averge (2 children being taken as equivalent to 1 adult) in the pre-war period. The present average population of each room is 10 adults—a strikingly large number.

Municipal Corporation Chawls.—The Bombay City Improvement trust built 2,045 tenements on behalf of four textile mills in the city under the City Improvement Trust Act (since repealed) which enabled the Trust to acquire land, construct *chawls* and treat the expenditure thus incurred as loan repayable by the mills concerned in 30 annual instalments.[1] The Trust also constructed 9,330 tenements and 2,800 semi-permanent sheds as a part of the programme of rehousing of persons dishoused by its slum clearance operations. About 20 per cent. of these *chawls* and 35 per cent of the sheds are occupied by textile workers in the city. The rentals are Rs. 4|15|- to Rs. 10|8-- for the *chawls* and Rs. 2|8|- to Rs. 6 for the sheds. Besides this, the Bombay Municipal Corporation owns, in the estates acquired by the old Improvement Trust, *chawls,* consisting of nearly 5,000 one-room tenements.

Port Trust Colonies.—The Port Trust have provided housing accommodation for about 30 per cent of their workers. Two independent housing colonies have been established, one at the Antop village under the control of the Labour Welfare Officer and the other at Wadi Bunder under the control of the Docks Manager. The former comprises 494 residential units built in single storeyed two-room cottages and each unit has a *chula* (fire place) and *nahani* (washing place). Of these, about 86 have also a covered verandah 4' wide. The floor area of each unit is 180 sq. ft. Each room has generally one window and two doors. Ventilation and lighting are satisfactory. It is not unusual for more than one family to stay in a single unit. The average number of persons staying in each unit is about 8. Electricity has been provided for street lighting but kerosene oil lamps are used inside the homes. There are 17 water storage tanks in the colony but there are complaints about the inadequacy of the water supply. Common bath rooms, latrines and washing

[1] *Report of the Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee* (1940), pp. 269 and 270.

places have been provided for each block of houses. The general sanitation is poor as open drains pass through the centre with houses on both sides. The rents are Rs. 3-4-0 for scavengers, Rs. 6 for engineering employees and Rs. 5 for railway employees per month. There is a railway station and a market near the colony. The post office is also quite close. The Port Trust has employed a welfare superintendent and a sanitary Inspector to look after this colony. The distance from the colony to the workplace is about 5 miles. The second housing colony at Wadi Bunder consists of seven *chawls*. This colony houses two types of workers (a) scavengers and sweepers and (b) other workers. There are 196 residential units for scavengers consisting of a single room and a common passage, while the general body of workers are housed in four five storeyed *chawls* built of concrete, consisting of about 200 residential units of the double row type with a central corridor 8' wide. All these quarters are single room tenements with a floor area of about 120 sq. feet each. The average number of persons occupying a room is sometimes as high as 12. Congestion is still more intensified by the habit of some families taking in paying-guests. Tap water is available only on the ground floor. Only 8 latrines and 8 bathrooms are provided for each floor. Different rents are charged to different types of employers. As there is a railway station close by, the workers do not find it difficult to go to their places of work by train. In addition to the two colonies referred to above, the Trust has built about 525 single, double and three-room quarters at various places in the Port area, Carnac Bunder and Wadala.

Textile Mill Chawls.—Twentyone mills[1] in Bombay have provided quarters for their workers in 4,301 tenements. Of these, 3,354 are single-roomed, 939 double-roomed and 8 with three or more rooms. All these tenements are located in 166 *chawls*, generally built near the mills. The mapority of the rooms are 10 ft. square although a few rooms measure 15' × 10'. Arrangements for water-supply and sanitation are common. Electric light is supplied in the corridors. A few mills, however, have provided electric lights in the tenements. Usually 3 to 4 persons occupy each room but during war time the rooms were much more overcrowded. The rent per tenement varies from Rs. 3 to Rs. 5. With all that has been done to improve these *chawls*, the Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee, agreeing with the opinion of the Royal Commission, hoped "that this plan will not be copied in any future housing schemes[2]".

Private Chawls.—The conditions in private *chawls* were the subject of an enquiry by the Bombay Labour Office in September 1938. "The statistics collected show that, of the families covered, 91.24 per cent live in one-room tenements, and that the average number of persons residing in each such tenement is 3.84. The approximate floor space available per person and tenement is 26.86 and 103.23 sq. ft. respectively. The average monthly rent is Rs. 6-14-4 for one-room tenement, the figure varying between Rs. 5 and Rs. 9 for 79 per cent of the total number of families. Taking the two and three-room tenements into consideration, the average monthly rent for all tenements is Rs. 7|6|6 and represents 17.07 per cent

[1]Four of these mills availed themselves of the facilities available under the Bombay City Improvement Trust Act, as has been referred to already.

[2]*Report*, p. 272.

of the average income, although for the income-groups comprising the majority—55 per cent of families covered—the proportions are between 18.30 per cent. and 23.51 per cent. One-room tenements constitute 81 per cent of the total tenements in the city, 74 per cent of the population of which dwells in these tenements."[1] The conditions in private *chawls* worsened in the war years and as the problem of housing grew more and more acute the private landlord and his rent collectors found it convenient to harass the tenants by asking for increased rents in violation of the statutory enactments in force. It is complained that, considering the accommodation provided and the meagre facilities given, the rents of these *chawls* are very high. Latrines and bath-rooms are provided but these are woefully deficient. Ventilation and natural light in these *chawls* are inadequate and unsatisfactory as most of the tenements have no windows. Even where windows are provided, these are invariably kept closed with a view to securing privacy or using the space for storing purposes. The sanitary arrangements are not only inadequate but are also badly neglected. As the Royal Commission remark: "In the majority of cases these *chawls* are impossible of improvement and therefore fit only for demolition".[2]

B. *Ahmedabad*

Municipal Tenements.—Government have not provided any housing scheme in Ahmedabad. The Municipality has built 383 tenements for Harijans and 454 for others. Each tenement comprises one room (144 sq. ft.), one kitchen (64 sq. ft.) and an open verandah, all in a single-storey structure and the average number of inmates is 4 to 5. The roof is of cement concrete, the walls of bricks with cement lining and the floor is stonepaved. No bathrooms are provided. Up to 1943, the monthly rent charged was Rs. 2 for Harijans and Rs. 5|8|- for others. The rent in the latter case has now been raised to Rs. 7|8|- per month and persons whose monthly income is Rs. 75 or below are eligible for it. The previous income limit was Rs. 35 per month.

Ahmedabad Mills Housing Company.—The Ahmedabad Mills Housing Company Limited, an organisation promoted by the millowners, has hitherto built about 800 tenements for the workers. Each tenement consists of a room (14 ft.×12 ft.), a kitchen (12 ft. ×6 ft.) and a verandah (7 ft. × 12 ft.). The rent charged is Rs. 4|8|- per month but there are numerous complaints in respect of sanitation, water-supply and cleanlinesss. It is said that many of the roofs are leaky and that whitewashing is not undertaken at regular intervals. A few of the millowners have built *chawls* close to their mills for housing some of their workers. The monthly rent of tenements in these *chawls,* which generally comprise one room 12 ft.×12 ft. and a verandah 12 ft.× 4 ft., varies between Rs. 1|8|- and Rs. 4. The rent for a two-room tenement varies between Rs. 6 and Rs. 8. These *chawls* are generally in a row of 6 to 8 tenements. Roofing is generally of corrugated iron sheets. Ventilation is not satisfactory.

Textile Labour Association Colony.—The Textile Labour Association has built a colony of 60 tenements, each tenement comprising two rooms (14½ ft. × 10 ft. and 11 ft. × 18 ft.), a kitchen (8 ft. × 7 ft.), a verandah

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[1] *Ibid,* p. 273.

[2] *Report,* p. 273.

(19½ ft. × 7 ft.) and a courtyard (19½ ft. × 18 ft.). The tenements are let out to workers on a hire-purchase system, each tenant paying Rs. 10 per month and ultimately becoming the owner of the house in 20 years.

Co-operative Housing Societies.—There are 6 workers' Cooperative Housing Societies which have built 400 semi-detached tenements, each comprising a living room (15 ft. × 8 ft.), a small room (8 ft. × 10 ft.), a kitchen (8 ft.×8 ft.) and two covered verandahs (23 ft.×8 ft. and 10 ft ×8 ft.)—all built in brick and mortar with a concrete terrace over the main room and a tiled roof over the rest of the structure.

Private Chawls.—It is apparent that the number of tenements built by agencies referred to above is exceedingly small as compared to the number of tenements erected by private enterprise. According to the Census Report of 1941, there were 63,899 tenements in the suburbs of Ahmedabad, 47,780, or 74.8 of these being one-room tenements. The detailed analysis of these is given below:—

TABLE 133.

Private Tenements in Ahmedabad (1941)

Type.	Number.	% of total
1—room tenements ..	47,780	74.8
2—room tenements ..	11,351	17.8
3—room tenements ..	2,154	3.4
4—room tenements & above ..	2,614	4.0

The first two categories of tenements are occupied by the working classes and the remaining categories by the middle classes. Most of the *chawls* are built of cheap material and almost 60 per cent of them have plinth below 1 ft. The old tenements are built back to back in a fair number of cases, but many of these have since been declared unfit for human habitation under section 153 of the Boroughs Municipal Act. The Gujerat Regional Trade Union Council asserts that even such tenements as are declared unfit for human habitation are let out to tenants. According to the Bombay Labour Office enquiry of 1938, the average number of persons per tenement was 4.05 and the approximate average floor space per person came to 43.04, 134.03 and 174.47 square feet respectively. The average number of persons living per single-room tenement in 1944, according to the Assistant Director of Public Health, Ahmedabad, was one worker, his wife with 4 children below 10 and one adult dependant making a total of 3 adults and 4 children. In some cases, the total number of inmates went up to 10 to 14 in a room, generally measuring 12 ft. × 10 ft. or so with, in some cases, a verandah 6 ft. × 12 ft. It is not uncommon to find more than one family living in one room. The structures are pucca with brick walls and roofs of cement concrete, corrugated iron sheets or country tiles. The floor in the majority of cases is of mud and hence damp and dirty. Despite the fact that a majority of the tenements have windows, the rooms are dark and ill-ventilated. Generally no lights are provided in the compounds of these tenements. Water supply is inadequate. 15% of the *chawls* have tap connections and some *chawls* have provided tube wells. All the rest depend on surface wells, most of them in an insanitary and polluted condition. There is no statutory provision for bathrooms in *chawls* and, in most cases, no bath rooms are pro-

vided. This, to say the least, is a deplorable state of affairs. A recent enquiry conducted by the Textile Labour Association into the condition of 997 *chawls* and 57,516 tenements showed that there were only 223 bathrooms, about half of them being set apart for females. The bathrooms have generally a wall protection to secure privacy and as a general rule, have no doors or roofs. The rents charged for these tenements range from Rs. 4|12 p.m. for a single-room tenement to Rs. 7|8 for a two-room tenement. Since 1939, the owners have raised the rents from -|8|- upto Rs. 2 p.m. in spite of the Rent Restriction Act. The tenants often complaint against the rent collectors and their high-handed and insulting methods. The watchman lets the tenements to persons of his own choice, charging *pagdi* (or illegal premium) which may be anything above 10 rupees. There are at least 10,000 tenements which have no latrines at all. Where latrines are provided, they are in a most insanitary condition. The floors are cement or stone-paved. Cleansing is grossly neglected. Generally, latrines are washed with waste water and urine collected in *kundis*. Latrine doors are not repaired and tubs not replaced even when leaky. There is no proper system of drainage for all the *chawls*. Most of the *chawls* are situated near the places of work, within 20 to 25 minutes of walking distance. Market and Post Office facilities near these chawls are not very adequate and satisfactory and the workers are put to much hardship.

C. *Calcutta.*

Due to the development of industries in Calcutta and to the neglect of most of the employers to provide housing for their workers, it was left to the *sirdar* and the private landlord to make capital out of this situation by providing cheap houses at high rents. .. ....

Bustees.—A large majority of workers live in dark, damp, leaky huts in *bustees,* an apt description of which appeared in the Administration Report of 1868 of the Corporation of Calcutta: "A *bustee,* or native village generally consists of a mass of huts constructed without any plan or arrangement, without roads, without drains, ill-ventilated, and never cleaned. Most of these villages are the abodes of misery, vice, and filth and the nurseries of sickness and disease. In these *bustees* are found green and slimy stagnant ponds, full of putrid vegetable and animal matter in a state of decomposition, and whose bubbling surfaces exhale, under a tropical sun, noxious gases, poisoning the atmosphere and spreading around disease and death. These ponds supply the native with water for domestic purposes, and are very often the receptacles of filth. The articles which feed these tanks are the drains that ramify over the village, and carry the sewage of the huts into them. Their position is marked by a development of rank vegetation. The entrances to these *bustees* are many, but are not easily discoverable, whilst the paths are so narrow and tortuous that it is difficult for a stranger to find his way through them. The huts are huddled together in masses, and pushed to the very edge of the ponds, the projecting eaves often meeting one another, whilst the intervening spaces, impervious to the rays of the sun, are converted into urinals and used by both sexes in common. In these huts often live entire families, the members of which occupy the single apartment of which it is not infrequently composed, and in which they feed and sleep together, the wet and spongy floor with a mat spread on it serving as a

bed for the whole family. None of these villages possesses a single road or thoroughfare, properly so-called, through which a conservancy cart or even a wheelbarrow can pass in order to remove the filth. This filth is laid at the door of every hut or thrown into a neighbouring cesspool". It is deplorable that no *appreciable* change has taken place in these *bustees* during the last three quarters of a century. Most of the houses in *bustees* are katcha huts, with katcha walls and floor and with roofs of thatch, corrugated iron sheets or tiles. The walls are generally made of earth or split bamboo plastered with mud. The height of these huts generally varies from 6 to 8 feet. The plinth height is about 9 inches and hence the floor is usually damp. A fair number of houses have plinths below the ground level. The size of a room including the so-called verandah is about 80 sq. ft. and it provides accommodation for 9 persons. This shows the abnormal congestion and density of population in *buhtees*. It may not be out of place to mention here that the rooms are hardly use for dwelling purposes alone. They usually serve the purposes of kitchen and store room and the inmates find it more convenient to sleep out in the open in fair weather. Ventilation in these tenements is highly unsatisfactory. The rooms are, as a rule, very poorly lighted owing to lack of windows and even where any small apertures exist, they are usually closed by the inmates in their desire to secure privacy or to avoid imaginary evils of ventilation. Usually the size of a window or an opening in the wall is not more than 3 sq. ft. There is hardly any provision for kitchens. In 83 per cent cases, kitchens are located in the bedrooms. After an inspection of some of the bustee areas of the city in January, 1945, His Excellency the Governor of Bengal was reported to have said. "I have been horrified by what I have seen. Human beings cannot allow other human beings to continue to exist under these conditions".

Employers Housing.—The quarters supplied by the employers are usually near the places of work. The structures, mostly back to back, are usually of brick walls and the floors are brick-paved or katcha. Ventilation is generally unsatisfactory and is largely through the door. Latrines provided are insufficient and dirty and, in some cases, without doors. There is hardly any privacy and workers use the open drains for urinating purposes.

Jute Mill Quarters.—Information obtained by the Indian Jute Mills Association from 61 mills shows that the percentage of workers housed by individual mills varies from 7.9 to 100 and the total number of rooms and quarters supplied for this purpose comes to about 42,466. The houses provided are either katcha or pucca and are usually of the back-to back barrack type with a common verandah about 3 feet wide a portion of which is used as a kitchen. The pucca rooms are built of bricks with roofs of beaten *soorki*, reinforced concrete or asbestos corrugated sheets The katcha rooms have mud plastered split-bamboo walls with tiled or thatched roofs. The following table shows the distribution of 21,732 rooms, as furnished by the Indian Jute Mills Association, according to floor space :—

TABLE 134.

Frequency Distribution of Rooms according to Floor Space.

Floor space. (Square feet). Above		Upto	No. of room.	Percentage to total.
75	—	80	9,143	42.1
80	—	85	3,222	14.9
85	—	90	4,722	21.7
90	—	95	1,872	8.6
95	—	100	1,437	6.6
100	—	105	485	2.2
105	—	110	717	3.3
110	—	115	134	0.6
		Total	21,732	100.0

It is apparent that in 94 per cent of the cases, the floor space available to a worker and his family is less than 100 square feet. The rooms are generally badly lighted and ventilation is altogether inadequate. Owing to congestion, workers prefer to sleep outside on the floor or on cots, weather permitting. Arrangements for latrines and urinals are inadequate. The sanitary arrangements are unsatisfactory. In recent years some good housing colonies for jute mill workers have sprung up and one of the best is the Birla Jute Mills colony which houses about 43 per cent of the employees of this mill in pucca quarters numbering about 1,200. The effectiveness of the supervision of the sanitary condition in employers' colonies varies from mill to mill according to the type of staff entrusted with this work. In some mills, for instance, sanitation is left in the hands of a regular staff of medical officers sanitary inspectors or welfare inspectors. In others, *Darwans, Jamadars, Sardars,* clerks or sweepers may be in charge.

Cotton Textile Mill Quarters.—Information obtained from 15 cotton textile mills employing 9,556 workers shows that 45 per cent of the workers have been provided with housing. The houses provided are pucca with tiled or corrugated iron sheet roofs. They consist of one-room tenements built in barracks without proper ventilation. Arrangements for water and sanitation are wholly inadequate. There is a considerable amount of overcrowding in these houses. Many mills do not charge any rent but others charge from Rs. 1|8 to Rs. 2 per month.

Port Trust Quarters.—Nearly 40 per cent of the workers employed by the Port Commissioners are provided with free quarters. All the quarters are for single men and comprise single rooms, about 45 square feet, and a verandah. The rooms are built in lines or back-to-back tenements. They are pucca structures with brick walls, tile or corrugated iron sheet roofs and cement floors. Light and ventilation are fairly good. So are arrangements for the supply of water and sanitation. But there are no bathrooms in these quarters which are generally within a mile of the place of work.

Other Employers' Quarters.—The Indian General Navigation and Railway Company, the Howrah Trading Company, a few of the chemical works, cigarette and glass factories, and some other concerns provide

housing for a certain proportion of their workers. The quarters are generally of a barrack type consisting of single-room units with or without a common verandah. The density of occupancy per room is fairly high and ventilation and sanitation are not satisfactory.

D. *Cawnpore.*

Improvement Trust Quarters.—There is no housing scheme for workers provided at Cawnpore by the State except that, in 1943-44, the Provincial Government granted an interest-free loan of Rs. 30.3 lakhs to the Improvement Trust for the construction of 2,400 family quarters. The quarters are under construction. The plan consists of 10 units of 240 workmen's quarters each. Each unit will comprise 10 residential blocks, each of 24 quarters, 2 sanitary blocks, each of 12 seats, 4 bathing blocks with a shed, platform, bathing rooms, taps, etc., sewers and internal roads, all self-contained. Each residential block will comprise 12 quarters on the ground floor and 12 quarters on the first floor. The ground floor quarter will contain one living room, one verandah-cum-room with a fireplace or *chulah* and a courtyard, all of which be 12ft.×9ft. approximately. The quarter on the first floor will contain one living room 12ft.×9ft. one verandah 12 ft×7 ft. and one courtyard 12 ft.×7 ft. Besides, a large playground 141ft.×117ft. and 8 small open spaces of 65ft.×54ft. each will be provided for the use of the residents. Out of the total of 2,400 quarters, which are proposed to be let out on a monthly rent of Rs. 4 each, 1,440 willl be reserved for the ordnance factory workers while the remaining will be offered to the workmen of other factories. The Cawnpore Improvement Trust had a scheme to build a limited number of workmen's quarters every year. Under it, only 281 were constructed up to the end of the year 1938. These were transferred at cost price to the Elgin Mills, the Kakomi Co-operative Housing Society, the Municipal Board and to individual workers. The accommodation in the quarters built by the Trust varied as the time progressed. The earlier designs comprised a room (100 to 120 sq. ft.), a verandah (about 80 sq. ft.) and a courtyard with a small kitchen. Later designs of quarters constructed since 1934 comprised a living room (100 to 120 sq. ft.), a back room, a verandah (about 80 sq. ft.) and an independent hand-cleansing latrine. These quarters have all been built back to back in rows of 20 each. The structures were constructed of brick and mud, with R. C. C. slab roofs but the floors were all *katcha*. Two adults or one family comprising husband, wife and three children resided in each quarter before the war. The number of inmates has doubled or trebled since 1939.

Employers' Housing Schemes.—At the time of the enquiry of the Royal Commission only 3,100 quarters had been provided by the employers. The position has not improved after 8 years; on the other hand it has even deteriorated. According to the Cawnpore Labour Enquiry Committee which reported in 1938, "The accommodation provided by the employers consists of 3,000 tenements which house about 10,000 persons".[1] Between 1938 and the present time no new workers' quarters on any appreciable scale have been provided by the employers. In 1943, there were 1.03,000 industrial workers in Cawnpore, so that the employers provide housing accommodation, to only less than 10 per cent of theiir labour. Among the employers,

[1] *Report*, p. 76.

the British India Corporation were pioneers in providing housing facilities for their workers. They constructed 1,660 quarters in two settlements known as Allenganj and McRobertganj. McRobertganj is the better of the two and contains 43 blocks comprising 801 quarters, generally having one or two rooms. The rent charged for a single quarter is Rs. 1-4-0 while that for the double quarter is Rs. 4-8-0 per month. About 1,200 workers are housed here. The houses are well-kept, the surroundings are neat, clean and sanitary and special amenities such as a dispensary and two primary schools are provided. The Elgin Mills under the management of Begg Sutherland & Co., Ltd., own two settlements, the Maxwell-Ganj and the Elgin Mill settlements, which consist of 156 houses in all. Of these, 100 quarters in Maxwell-Ganj have been purchased by the mill from the workmen's quarters built by the Improvement Trust. The Maxwell-Ganj settlement consists of three types of quarters. The first type quarters have two rooms, a verandah and a store room with wall shelves, a pucca cooking place and a walled courtyard. There is a water tap and a two seated latrine for each quarter. The quarters are are also propided with electric lights. The second type is the same as the first except that it has only one room and no electricity or water taps. The third type consists of a room and a verandah only. The rents charged are Rs. 6-8-0, Rs. 3-4-0, to Rs. 3-8-0, a Rs 2-8-0 p. m. respectively for the three types. The Elgin Mill settlem it has 56 quarters, also of three types; a room with a verandah, a room with a verandah and a walled courtyard and two rooms with a verandah and a courtyard. The third type here is provided with electric light. The Kamala Town Trust off the J. K. Group of Mills is constructing a large colony for housing most of their workers.

Municipal Quarters.—The Municipality has provided a few rent-free quarters for labour employed in parks and gardens and also for sweepers. About 208 quarters have been provided in four localities and about 500 workers live in them. The quarters are of three types—one-roomed, two-roomed and one-roomed with a verandah. Single rooms are generally 10ft.×8ft. and the verandah 8ft.×5ft. The houses have pucca walls and tiled or corrugated iron sheet roofs. In some cases the floor is paved with bricks. Common water taps and latrines for males and female separately are provided. In many cases more than one family occupy one quarter. The rent is Re. 1 to Rs. 2 per month.

Bustees or Ahatas.—A very large number of the workers live in *bustees* or *ahatas* owned by private landlords. The Royal Commission gave the following description of these *ahatas*: "Most of the houses consist of a single room, 8 ft.×10 ft., with or without a verandah and such dwellings are frequently shared by two, three and four families. It is not uncommon for the floor to be below ground level and drainage, ventilation and sanitation are entirely wanting"[1]. The only improvement which has been effected by the Improvement Trust in these *ahatas* during the last fifteen years is the provision of roads and drainage. Otherwise, their condition remains as unsatisfactory as ever.

In pursuance of the recommendations of the Cawnpore Labour Inquiry Committee, an enquiry into the housing conditions of mill-hands in the city of Cawnpore was conducted by the Bureau of Economic

[1] *Report*, p. 276.

Intelligence, U. P., in 1938-39, covering all important *bustees* and *ahatas*. The survey brings out that 96 per cent families occupied either one-room or two-room dwellings[1] their respective proportions being roughly 65 per cent and 31 per cent of the aggregate. Dwellings with three or four rooms each accounted for only 4 per cent of the aggregate. There was no dwelling with more than four rooms. The most common dimensions of the rooms were 11ft.×9ft.×11ft. or 99 square feet in area and about 1,089 cubic feet in space. 70 per cent of the rooms had one door each only, 25 per cent had two doors each, although the two-door rooms had in most cases one of the two doors common between two rooms. In as many as 69 per cent rooms in two-room dwellings, 57 per cent in three-room dwellings and 39 per cent in four-room dwellings, the only door was a common door. The most common size of doors was 3ft.×6ft. or 18 squarte feet. 92 per cent rooms had no windows and an equal percentage had no ventilators. There appeared to be no direct relationship between windows and ventilators and rents paid. Seventy-three per cent rooms had katcha floors, but 76 per cent had pucca walls, the percentage increasing to 96 in four-room dwellings. The roofs were pucca in 40 per cent rooms, katcha in 27 per cent rooms and tiled or tinned in about 32 per cent rooms. About 59 per cent families living in one-room dwellings and 25.2 per cent families living in two-room dwellings had verandahs. The model size of verandah was 11ft.×7ft.×10ft. Courtyard was not available to 73 per cent families living in one-room and two-room dwellings. Families living in one-room dwellings had the least room area of 100.6 square feet, supplemented in 39 per cent cases by a verandah of 80 square feet, and in 7 per cent cases by a courtyard of 130 sq. feet. Again, privacy was affected in a number of dwellings either by verandahs and courtyards being open to view from neighbouring house-tops or as a result of unsuitable doors and common sharing of dwellings. Only 7 per cent families had private taps for water supply and 46 per cent took their water from public taps. The average pressure per public tap was, however, as high as 53 families or 200 persons per tap. Nearly 50 per cent families drew their water from wells, each one again serving, on an average, 105 families or 313 persons. Thus, pressure on taps and wells was appalling. No latrine arrangements existed for 26 per cent families, while only 19 per cent had private latrines. The rest used public latrines, each of which had an average pressure of 299 families or 761 persons. Only about one-fourth of these had flush system, while only one cleaning per day was reported in 45 per cent cases. Only 4 per cent families were served by dust-bins. This means that 96 per cent families generally threw their house-refuse indiscriminately on the lanes or roads. 19 per cent of the dwellings had no drains and water-logging (i.e., water flowing into pits or not flowing at all) was reported in 25 per cent cases. There were no lighting arrangements on approaches leading to 69 per cent dwellings. The condition was very bad during rains when 56 per cent dwellings leaked and 26 per cent were actually flooded. The Cawnpore Labour Enquiry Committe aptly described the condition of a passer-by on these roads in the following words: "A night visit for a stranger to these places is a positively risky undertaking, a sprained ankle is almost a certainty, while a broken neck by stumbling into a blind well or a

[1]The term "dwelling" refers to the area—rooms, verandahs and courtyards—occupied by the family under investigation independently or in common with other families.

goodly-sized hole would not be an impossibility". Familiies living in these dwellings consisted in 51.9 per cent cases of 3 to 6 resident persons each, though in 9 per cent cases, the size of the family ranged from 7 to 12 occupant members each.

E. *Madras.*

The housing conditions in Madras are equally unsatisfactory. Most of the workers live in single rooms, with or without a small verandah. More often than not, the rooms have no window or even a ventilator. The buildings are pucca with brick walls and tiled or flat roofs. Each house is split up into a number of small portions, each rented by one family. The rooms generally measure from 10ft.×8ft. to 12ft.×16ft. Latrines are provided but not in sufficient numbers. These are used in common by all the occupants of the house, sometimes numbering as many as 65. In most cases no bathrooms are provided and the inmates, both males and females, have to bathe in the open courtyard near the common tap. This causes much inconvenience to the women-folk and the use of a common tap frequently gives rise to petty quarrels among the several occupants of the houses. The floor is either of mud or brick or concrete. The rooms are ill-ventilated and dark. Most of them have turned dark with soot and smoke and do not seem to have been whitewashed for a long time. The rents for these one-room tenements vary from Rs. 3 in a few cases up to Rs. 10, Rs. 6 being more common. Almost all the houses are privately owned. The Director of Industries, Madras, made an enquiry into the family budgets of industrial workers in Madras city in 1938. The enquiry covered cotton textiles, railway workshops, engineering works, oil installations, printing presses, etc., and is of a fairly representative character. The Report[1] says: "The rooms are almost devoid of ventilation, and the entrance to some of these is so low that one has nearly to double oneself for entering them. The rooms have also very little light, and things inside can be seen only with the aid of a lamp even during day time. Sometimes the floor is on a lower level than the street and rain-water would find its way into the house and render the floor damp and unfit for habitation. Washing and drainage facilities and latrines are scarcely provided for. Washing and bathing are done in the streets or lanes which consequently are rendered very dirty. The dimensions of the one room tenements generally vary from 8'×5' to 8' square". The average expenditure on rent per family is Rs. 3-15-9, i.e., 10.77 per cent. of the total expenditure of the family. Expenditure on rent increases as the income increases but the percentage expenditure on this item varies inversely with the income. For instance, from 6.05 per cent. in the lowest income group it falls to 9.74 per cent. in the Rs. 50 to Rs. 60 group.

Employers' Houses.—The Madras Corporation provides housing for only 35 per rent. of its employees in the Conservansy Department. It has built in all 354 quarters comprising 244 one-room tenements and 110 two-room tenements. The tenements are thatched or tiled with mud or brick walls. In some cases there are common latrines separately for men and

[1]Report on an Enquiry into the *Family Budgets* of Industrial workers in Madras *City.* (Madras, 1938), p. 37.

women, while in others a latrine is provided in the quarter itself. In most of the tenements no separate water taps are provided. The rent charged varies from one anna to Rs. 2 according to the type of quarter supplied. The Corporation has also in some cases supplied rest platform on which the workers have erected their own huts; and in some cases also plots where workers have erected huts without any foundation. No provision whatever has been made for sanitation in such huts with the result that they present a most dismal picture of dirt and squalor. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills provide housing for nearly 10% of their workers. Thy have built about 659 houses in four villages. The usual type consists of a living room, a kitchen, a washing place, a front verandah and a yard. Pipe water is supplied. A nominal rent of Rs. 1-8-0 is charged though, for larger accommodation, the rent varies from Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 per month. All roads in the villages are lighted by electricity and charges for lighting, conservancy and water are paid by the Company. About 6% of the permanent workers have been provided with housing in these colonies.

Cheries.—Besides the houses referred to above, there is another type of accommodation in the city of Madras known as *cheries*. These are small colonies of thatched huts on the banks of the river Cooum, or in certain specified open spaces, built with no provision for any sanitary and other facilities. The walls are of mud or small mats and the roofs are of palmyra leaves or hay or sometime a combination of these two and old tin sheets. These huts have usually a door measuring 2'×3' and one can enter them only by bending low. These huts are air-proof and light-proof but by no means rain-proof. In the rainy season, the roofs generally leak and the whole floor remains damp partly because of this and partly because of the absence of any plinth. There are no latrines and no water supply on the premises, the inhabitants using public latrines and taps. The *cheries* are dirty, damp and unhealthy. The whole place is heaped with rubbish, garbage and night soil. These huts are erected by the workers themselves with borrowed money on a site for which they pay ground rent.

F. *Jamshedpur*

Jamshedpur is a proprietary industrial town owned by the Tata Iron and Steel Company. Started in 1907 over 5½ square miles of land acquired under the Land Acquisition Act, the Steel Works began functioning in December 1911. A further area of land was acquired during 1918-20 comprising nearly 20 square miles. In pursuance of the Greater Extension Scheme, the Associated Companies have been established on land leased to them by the Steel Works which also supply them water, electricity and cheap raw materials (e.g., pig iron, steel billets, plates, sheets, rods, etc). Both the Steel Company and the Associated Companies have their own housing schemes. The Steel Company has, in addition, made provision for planned *bustees* and residential areas, where employees working under different managements have erected their own houses. Jamshedpur has been rapidly developing as the Census figures show. From 5,632 in 1911, the population rose to 57,454 in 1921; to 83,738 in 1931; and to 1,43,110 in 1941. Of the total population in 1941, 83,624 were males and 59,486 were females. At present the population is believed to have increased to 1,65,000 although the proportion of males and

females does not seem to have changed. Housing accommodation in Jamshedpur is yet far short of actual demand and the position has been greatly accentuated during the war for reasons directly attributable to and associated with defence.

The Tata Iron and Steel Company.—The Company has so far built 8,428 quarters to accommodate about 34 per cent. of their employees. The following table gives a rough idea of the accommodation available in different types and their rentals:—

TABLE 135.

Housing at Tatanagar

Total number of quarters	Accommodation	Rent
88	1 living room (with verandah and kitchen in some cases).	Rs. 1/8 to Rs. 5/-
3,383	1 living room, kitchen & bathing platform in some cases and verandah (front and/or rear), courtyard, etc.	Rs. 2/4 to Rs. 11/-
4,217	2 living rooms, kitchen, latrine, bathing platform, verandah, front garden, etc.	Rs. 6/- to Rs. 21/-
96 Chawls	2 living rooms with front verandah & kitchen kitchen, etc.	Rs. 4/-
351	3 to 5 living rooms and kitchen, bathroom, latrine, verandahs, garden space, etc.	Rs. 12/8 to Rs. 40/-
293	Bungalows for officers and senior supervising staff.	
8,438		

In 1935, the Company decided that the minimum accommodation to be provided to workers should be two living rooms, kitchen, bath and latrine. There are also about 3,015 houses built by the employees under the Company's Building Loan Scheme. The Company houses are all *pucca* with brick walls, roofs (in the case of many) of reinforced brick work and floor plastered with cement except in a few one-room quarters, where the floor is *katcha*. All family quarters are provided with a bathroom with a minimum space of 4 ft. × 4 ft. and are brick-walled. In one-room tenements, no separate bathrooms are provided, but open bathing platforms adjoining water taps are put up. All quarters built since 1920 are provided with ventilators. All houses are provided with electric light and/or fans. With the exception of one-room quarters (which are provided with common latrines), all quarters are provided with flush latrines. Quarters have been built in lines parallel to roads in blocks of 2 units of the larger types, 4 units of medium type, and 6 units of other types. Side passages are left after each block for sufficient air and light. Arrangements for supply of pipe water are satisfactory. It must, however, be said that, although the employers have done all they could under the circumstances to house the semi-skilled and skilled staff, the un-skilled workers, who numbered 9,223 on the last April 1944, have not been provided for as well as they should have been. The very small provision of quarters for them is an indication of the lack of attention to their needs.

The Tinplate Company.—This Company employed 3,637 workers in January 1945, but provided only 931 pucca houses, while 500 *katcha* or semi-*pucca* houses have been built by workers themselves in the Company's

leased area with the assistance of building loans, on which 3 per cent interest is charged. The Company's quarters comprise several types and the monthly rents range from Rs. 2-4-0 to Rs. 24. These quarters have indoor water-borne sanitation except in the case of 92 for which public latrines have been constructed on convenient sites. The total population in Company's quarters is 4,831, giving an average of 5.18 persons per quarter.

III—*Housing in Factory Industries.*

We shall now discuss the results of our *ad hoc* survey enquiries into the housing conditions of workers in sampled units in the principal groups of industries, viz., the factory industries, plantations, mining industries and railways. This will provide a very helpful cross-section view of the problem of industrial housing.

The following tables (Tables 136—139) contain an analysis of the housing conditions of industrial workers surveyed by one of us (Dr. Mukhtar) in 14 centres in India. While the data were collected on the method of random selection and while the analysis gives a faithful and correct picture of the condition of housing in specific industries, no hasty generalisations need be drawn from it in respect of the remaining industries, the more so as some of the bigger industries, textiles and engineering, were not brought within the ambit of enquiry. The survey had limited aims, viz., to determine the size of dwellings occupied by workers in terms of habitable rooms, to determine the density of occupancy in habitable rooms and finally to discover the extent to which industrial workers enjoyed amenities in their dwellings. Table 136 shows that out of 4,710 dwellings covered by the survey, 1,642 were provided by employers and 3,068 were owned by private landlords. The majority of dwellings in each category—87.2% employers' and 66.2% private dwellings—consisted of one habitable room only. In some centres, one room dwellings constitute more than 90% of dwellings. In a few centres, on the other hand, nearly one third of dwellings consisted of two habitable rooms.

TABLE 136.

Distribution of Dwellings according to number of habitable rooms.

Centre	Industry in which occupants were employed	Number and percentage of dwellings containing												Total
		One room		Two rooms		Three rooms		Four rooms		Five rooms		Six rooms		
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Meerut ...	Sugar													
Employers' Houses		370	74.6	90	18.2	30	6.0	5	1.0	...	...	1	0.2	496
Private Houses ...		153	72.2	47	22.2	8	3.8	2	.9	2	.9	...	...	212
Gorakhpur ...	Sugar													
Employers' Houses		248	90.0	25	9.0	2	0.7	1	0.3	...	...	...	...	276
Private Houses ...		125	29.0	143	32.0	79	18.1	48	11.0	33	7.5	7	1.6	435
Champaran ...	Sugar													
Employers' Houses		462	93.3	16	3.3	10	2.0	7	1.4	...	...	...	...	495
Private Houses ...		71	45.5	41	26.3	26	16.7	11	7.1	7	4.4	...	...	156
Darbhanga ...	Sugar	259	75.3	77	22.4	4	1.1	2	0.6	2	0.6	...	...	344
Ahmednagar ...	Sugar	166	94.3	2	1.1	8	4.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	176
Madras ...	Sugar	210	75.0	62	22.1	7	2.5	1	0.4	...	...	...	...	280
Madras ...	Tramways	90	93.8	5	5.2	...	...	1	1.0	...	...	...	...	96
Madras ...	Tanneries	201	75.3	64	24.0	2	.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	267
Bangalore ...	Potteries	65	75.6	18	20.9	3	3.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	86
Bombay ...	Tramways													
Employers' Houses		137	95.8	6	4.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	143
Private Houses ...		58	89.2	7	10.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	65
Bombay ...	Printing	129	96.3	3	2.2	2	1.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	134
Karachi ...	Tramways	27	64.3	15	35.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	42
Lahore ...	Printing	78	49.1	48	30.2	23	14.4	7	4.4	2	1.3	1	.6	159
Simla ...	Printing	29	57.0	13	25.5	8	15.5	1	2.0	...	...	...	...	51
Delhi ...	Printing	120	58.3	68	33.0	14	6.8	4	1.9	...	...	...	...	206
Cawnpore ...	Tanneries													
Employers Houses		215	92.7	17	7.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	232
Private Houses ...		181	72.7	65	26.1	2	.8	1	.4	...	...	...	...	249
Amritsar ...	Carpet	60	60.0	25	25.0	14	14.0	...	...	1	1.0	...	...	100

Table 137 shows the density of occupancy in dwellings of different sizes. Density of occupancy has been calculated by dividing the number of occupants in dwellings of different sizes by the number of rooms in such dwellings. It will be seen that the average number of occupants per room is the highest in one-room dwellings in all centres. In dwellings containing more than one habitable room the general tendency is for density to be smaller than the average for all dwellings. It may further be stated that the averages alone are given in the table referred to above; the congestion evidently is much greater in individual cases.

TABLE 137.

Density of occuancy in dwellings of different sizes

	Density of occupancy (average number of persons per room) in dwellings containing.						
	1 room	2 rooms	3 rooms	4 rooms	5 rooms	6 rooms	All dwellings (per room)
Meerut.							
Employers' Houses	3.7	2.5	1.5	1.5	—	1.3	3.0
Private Houses	5.0	3.5	2.7	4.1	2.8	—	4.2
Gorakhpur.							
Employers' Houses	3.8	2.0	5.0	1.2	—	—	3.5
Private Houses	5.3	3.5	3.3	2.7	2.1	2.2	3.2
Champaran.							
Employers' Houses	4.5	2.2	1.2	.9	—	—	4.1
Private Houses	5.0	3.3	2.3	2.6	2.8	—	3.3
Darbhanga.							
	5.0	2.7	2.0	3.2	.7	—	4.0
Ahmednagar	5.2	2.0	1.3	—	—	—	4.7
Madras.							
(Sugar Mills)	4.9	3.3	2.7	4.0	—	—	4.2
(Tramways)	5.0	2.2	—	1.3	—	—	4.6
(Tanneries)	5.9	3.2	3.0	—	—	—	4.8
Bangalore.	4.6	2.6	1.8	—	—	—	3.7
Bombay (Tramways).							
Employers' Houses	4.5	3.2	—	—	—	—	4.4
Private Houses	5.8	2.7	—	—	—	—	5.2
Bombay.							
(Printing Presses)	4.8	4.3	4.0	—	—	—	4.7
Karachi.	5.4	4.2	—	—	—	—	4.8
Lahore.	5.1	3.5	2.5	2.0	2.7	3.3	3.5
Simla.	4.6	2.7	2.6	2.0	—	—	3.3
Delhi.	3.4	3.1	2.5	1.0	—	—	3.1
Cawnpore.							
Employers' Houses	4.0	3.1	—	—	—	—	3.9
Private Houses	3.8	2.4	2.2	2.5	—	—	3.2
Amritsar.	2.8	1.9	2.0	—	2.2	—	2.3

It appears that one-room dwellings are in themselves conducive to overcrowding as is indicated by the density of occupancy in such dwellings. In as many as ten cases, as Table 137 shows, the average number of persons living per room in one room dwellings is as high as 5 and more. It should be noted that the term 'occupants' includes adults of both sexes and children. In some housing surveys, children are considered to be a certain fraction—one-half of adults for calculating density of occupancy. But it is a matter for consideration whether children's requirements are really smaller in respect of the quantity of space necessary for their well-being than those of adults. Experience shows that for proper upbringing of children they must be provided with as much, if not more, space as is required by adults. In this analysis, therefore, children have been treated as equivalent to adults on the ground that though, for purposes of privacy, their requirements are much less than those of adults, for purposes of healthy growth they need at least the same standards of housing as adults. Tables 136 and 137 lead to the conclusion that one-room dwellings and two-room dwellings constitute more than 90 per cent of the total.

The proportion of occupants living in conditions of such overcrowding is indicated in Table 138. It will be seen that everywhere one-room dwellings were accommodating a proportion of occupants which was in excess of the proportion of living rooms comprised in them. Not only the dwellings surveyed were predominantly one-room dwellings, but also the proportion of occupants living in one-room dwellings was far in excess of the proportion of habitable rooms to the total number of rooms contained in one-room dwellings. The unsatisfactory conditions of housing are further indicated in Table 139 which shows the extent to which elementary amenities were enjoyed by the occupants of the dwellings surveyed. It will be seen that, in the great majority of cases, dwellings consisted largely or entirely of living rooms as indicated in Table 139, that is to say, that subsidary rooms are conspicuous by their absence especially in one room dwellings. In respect of other amenities, it will be seen that while the majority of dwellings as a whole was extremely poor in their enjoyment of such amenities, one-room dwellings were particularly so.

In respect of verandahs, conditions were found to very considerably. Thus in Meerut and Gorakhpur employers' houses were better provided with this amenity than private houses. In Champaran, on the other hand, private houses present a better appearance. In Bombay and Simla, verandahs are extremely rare. With regard to courtyards the position appears to be similar. In the majority of centres, it appears that the provision of verandahs and courtyards as a means of relieving congestion in living rooms is not at all common. To the extent that they are provided, one-room dwellings contain fewer of these than any other type of dwellings. As regards amenities which add to living and moving space, or privacy (particularly for women), or healthy conditions of family and social life, the picture is dismal, showing an unrelieved congestion.

Now let us see the extent to which other amenities like batahrooms, latrines, kitchens and water supply are in existence. Dwellings visited in Meerut (private houses), Gorakhpur, Champaran, Darbhanga, Bombay (private houses), Karachi and Cawnpore generally lacked kitchen facilities. The majority of dwellings have no separate kitchens and there is no evidence to show that dwellings devoid of kitchen had any subsidiary

TABLE 138.

Percentage of Habitable Rooms in Dwellings of Different Sizes to the Total Number of Rooms in all Dwellings and Percentage of Occupants in them to the Total Number of Occupants.

Centres	Percentage of habitable rooms of occupants in dwellings containing											
	One room		Two rooms		Three rooms		Four rooms		Five rooms		Six rooms	
	R	O	R	O	R	O	R	O	R	O	R	O
Meerut												
Employers' Houses ...	55.6	69.3	27.0	22.2	13.5	6.7	3.0	1.4	...	0.4	0.9	...
Private Houses	52.9	62.9	32.5	26.8	8.3	5.3	2.8	2.7	3.5	2.3	...	...
Gorakhpur												
Employers' Houses ...	80.5	87.2	16.2	9.5	2.0	2.8	1.3	0.5	...	...	...	...
Private Houses	11.8	19.3	27.1	29.0	22.4	22.7	18.2	15.4	15.6	10.3	4.9	3.3
Champaran												
Employers' Houses ...	83.7	94.1	5.8	3.1	5.4	1.6	5.1	1.2	...	...	...	...
Private Houses	22.4	34.3	25.8	26.1	24.6	17.4	18.9	10.9	13.3	11.3	...	...
Darbhanga	58.5	73.6	34.8	23.2	2.7	1.3	1.9	1.5	2.2	.4	...	...
Ahmednagar	85.6	95.6	2.1	0.9	12.3	3.5	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madras (Sugar Mills) ...	58.5	68.1	34.5	27.1	5.9	3.7	1.1	1.1	...	...	...	...
Madras (Tramways) ...	86.5	94.3	9.6	4.6	...	...	3.9	1.1	...	...	...	...
Madras (Tanneries) ...	60.0	73.7	38.2	25.2	1.8	1.1	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangalore	59.1	73.6	32.7	22.5	8.2	3.9	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bombay (Tramways)												
Employers' Houses ...	91.9	94.2	8.1	5.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Private Houses	80.6	90.1	19.4	9.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bombay (Printing Presses) ...	91.5	92.5	4.3	3.9	4.3	3.6	...	...	...	...	...	...
Karachi (Trams)	47.4	53.9	52.6	46.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lahore	27.2	39.3	33.4	33.3	24.0	17.2	9.8	5.6	3.5	2.7	2.1	1.9
Simla	35.0	48.0	31.3	26.0	28.9	23.0	4.8	3.0	...	...	...	...
Delhi	38.2	43.0	43.3	44.4	13.4	11.0	5.1	1.7	...	...	...	...
Cawnpore												
Employers' Houses ...	86.3	89.1	13.7	10.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Private Houses	56.4	67.3	40.5	30.4	1.9	1.3	1.2	1.0	...	...	...	...
Amritsar	38.2	46.1	31.8	27.1	26.8	23.7	...	...	3.2	3.1	...	...

O=Occupants.
R=Rooms.

TABLE 139.

Distribution of Dwellings according to Amenities provided

Centre of survey	Percentage of dwellings of different sizes provided with									
	Subsidiary Rooms	'Verandahs	Courtyards	Kitchens	Bathrooms	Latrines	Water-supply	Electric-city	Satis-factory drainage	Satis-factory Venti-lation.
Meerut										
Employers 'Houses	(a) 26.2	100	86.7	86.0	86.0	80.7	32.0	55.2	13.4	20.8
	(b) 19.4	100	82.2	82.0	82.0	73.8	16.2	43.0	8.1	16.2
	(c) 34.4	100	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	78.9	98.9	27.8	44.4
Private Houses ...	(a) 10.4	22.6	28.3	9.9	...	6.1	0.9	...	.5	...
	(b) 8.5	22.9	15.7	9.2	...	5.2	...	...	...	...
	(c) 12.7	8.5	53.0	8.5	...	10.6	4.3	...	2.1	...
Gorakpur										
Employers' Houses	(a) 11.6	57.2	32.6	21.4	4.0	28.2	0.4	9.8	30.0	45.3
	(b) 5.2	53.2	26.6	13.7	3.2	22.6	0.4	10.1	29.0	44.0
	(c) 68.0	92.0	92.0	88.0	8.0	80.0	...	4.0	32.0	52.0
Private Houses ...	(a) 13.3	33.8	66.7	38.4	...	...	0.7	...	.2	.5
	(b) 8.0	12.8	36.0	39.2	...	...	...	...	...	...
	(c) 7.7	35.0	61.5	48.9	...	...	1.4	...	.7	.7
Champaran										
Private Houses ...	(a) 31.6	1.9	24.7	1.3	...	1.3	...	...	...	1.9
	(b) 39.4	1.4	15.5	2.8	...	...	...	...	...	1.4
	(c) 53.7	.5	68.3	...	...	0.5	...	...	...	.5
Employers' Houses	(a) 2.8	47.7	13.5	25.1	3.4	13.9	41.4	4.4	14.9	51.3
	(b) ...	46.5	8.9	19.9	.6	10.4	42.6	0.2	8.9	47.8
	(c) 68.7	100.0	100.0	50.0	50.0	50.0	50.0	50.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 139—*contd.*

Distribution of Dwellings according to Amenities provided

Centre of survey		Percentage of dwellings of different sizes provided with									
		Subsidiary Rooms	Verandahs	Courtyards	Kitchens	Bathrooms	Latrines	Water-Supply	Electric-city	Satis-factory drainage	Satis-factory Venti-lation.
Darbhanga											
	(a)	12.5	23.5	26.7	13.4	1.2	15.7	.6	13.4	1.2	8.7
	(b)	5.8	26.7	23.6	4.7	...	21.9	...	19.7	...	19.3
	(c)	18.2	13.0	36.4	29.9	2.6	7.8	...	7.8	2.6	2.6
Ahmednagar											
	(a)	1.7	52.8	6.3	6.3	6.3	80.1	100.0	22.7	65.3	83.5
	(b)	1.2	50.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	78.9	100.0	18.7	63.9	83.1
	(c)	50.0	100.0	50.0	50.0	50.0	100.0	100.0	50.0	50.0	50.0
Madras											
(Sugar Mills) ...	(a)	1.4	72.1	8.9	43.6	...	11.5	2.5	...	...	4.3
	(b)	1.4	72.4	7.8	41.4	...	15.7	2.9	...	...	3.3
	(c)	1.6	75.8	12.9	50.0	...	...	1.6	...	...	6.5
(Tramways) ...	(a)	...	65.6	2.1	24.0	13.5	33.4	75.0	...	9.4	...
	(b)	...	49.3	...	24.4	13.3	30.0	74.4	...	7.8	...
	(c)	...	81.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	100.0	100.0	...	40.0	...
(Tanneries) ...	(a)	...	56.6	31.8	67.8	...	...	...	...	...	...
	(b)	...	67.8	26.4	62.7	...	...	...	...	...	...
	(c)	...	40.0	49.9	70.0	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangalore											
	(a)	2.3	38.4	27.9	60.5	...	...	27.9	...	7.0	...
	(b)	1.5	23.1	18.5	53.8	...	...	36.9	...	...	...
	(c)	5.6	100.0	66.6	94.4	...	...	...	...	33.3	...

TABLE 139—*concld.*

Distribution of Dwellings according to Amenities provided

Centre of survey		Percentage of dwellinsgs of different sizes provibed with									
		Subsidiary Rooms	Verandahs	Courtyards	Kitchens	Bathrooms	Latrines	Water-Supply	Electric-city	Satis-factory drainage	Satis-factory Venti-ation.
Bombay (Tramways Employers' Houses	(a) ...	...	...	...	53.8	...	100.0	...	87.4	100.0	97.2
	(b) ...	...	...	...	56.2	...	100.0	...	88.3	100.0	97.1
	(c) ...	...	...	...	...	...	100.0	...	66.7	100.0	100.0
Private Houses ...	(a) ...	12.3	...	...	...	...	100.0	16.9	33.6	...	96.9
	(b) ...	1.7	...	...	...	...	100.0	19.0	37.9	...	96.6
	(c) ...	100.0	...	...	...	...	100.0	...	...	...	100.0
Bombay (Printing Presses)	(a) ...	6.7	1.5	2.2	2.2	100.0	100.0	26.8	70.1	94.0	
	(b) ...	7.0	1.6	1.6	2.3	100.0	100.0	24.0	69.7	94.5	
	(c) ...	...	...	...	...	100.0	100.0	...	66.6	66.6	
Karachi (Tramways)	(a) 14.3	16.7	38.1	33.3	7.1	85.7	59.5	11.9	9.5	11.9	
	(b) 18.5	22.2	51.9	7.4	7.4	77.8	40.7	14.8	11.1	14.8	
	(c) 6.7	6.7	13.3	80.0	6.7	100.0	83.3	6.7	6.7	6.7	
Lahore	(a) 16.3	15.1	51.5	20.1	11.4	93.1	27.7	39.7	18.3	27.1	
	(b) 8.9	16.7	52.5	12.8	22.6	88.6	7.7	23.1	9.0	16.7	
	(c) 20.8	16.7	47.9	10.4	12.5	95.9	35.5	47.9	25.0	27.1	

TABLE 139—*contd.*

Distribution of Dwellings according to Amenities provided

Centre of survey		Percentage of dwellings of different sizes provided with								
		Subsidiary Rooms	Verandahs	Courtyards	Kitchens	Bathrooms	Latrines	Water-Supply	Electricity	Satisfactory drainage	Satisfactory Ventilation.
Simla											
	(a)	15.9	3.9	...	70.6	41.2	74.5	2.0	47.1	5.9	19.6
	(b)	13.8	...	...	62.1	13.8	69.0	...	31.0	...	3.4
	(c)	23.1	...	...	77.0	61.5	77.0	7.7	61.5	15.4	30.8
Delhi											
	(a)	8.3	44.0	58.7	33.0	22.3	92.2	26.7	19.9	40.3	25.7
	(b)	4.2	20.0	50.0	15.0	4.2	91.7	5.0	6.7	26.7	21.7
	(c)	13.2	52.9	51.5	55.9	50.0	92.6	55.9	27.9	48.5	25.0
Cawnpore											
Employers, Houses	(a)	...	81.0	43.1	46.1	10.7	39.2	11.6	1.3	26.2	37.5
	(b)	...	80.0	39.0	46.5	8.4	39.0	9.3	...	13.9	31.7
	(c)	...	94.0	94.0	41.1	4.1	41.0	41.0	1.3	100.0	100.0
Private Houses ...	(a)	...	35.3	18.4	1.2	...	48.9	...	2.3	49.9	30.1
	(b)	...	42.4	17.6	0.5	...	49.8	...	...	44.2	24.3
	(c)	...	16.9	21.4	3.1	...	49.9	...	2.3	56.9	44.9
Amritsar											
	(a)	1.0	91.0	50.0	86.0	7.0	94.0	43.0	3.0	47.0	66.0
	(b)	...	95.0	60.0	93.4	...	93.4	36.7	3.3	40.0	65.0
	(c)	...	100.0	44.0	80.0	4.0	84.0	32.0	...	40.0	48.0

(a)—All dwellings.
(b)—one-room dwellings.
(c)—Two-room dwellings.

rooms, verandahs or courtyards. The almost universal scarcity of bathrooms is in striking contrast with the almost universal practice of the workers to have a daily bath. The position suggests that the habit of outdoor and common bathing is very widespread. It is not known whether it is a result of absence of independent bathrooms in the homes or whether the absence of bathrooms is a result of the outdoor habit of bathing. But few will deny that much as outdoor bathing may suit rural life, it is extremely unsuited to life in an industrial centre. One evidence of this is seen in the not uncommon practice of bathing in living rooms. The position with regard to latrines is not so unsatisfactory. It is nevertheless an eye-opener. Common latrines are plentiful relatively to independent latrines. In some centres the situation with regard to latrines is almost incredible. Complete absence of latrines implies the use of either public latrines or surrounding open spaces for the purpose. In either case, it means a lot of inconvenience, insanitary conditions, danger of infection and formation of irregular habits of answering calls of nature. The position with regard to electricity, water supply, satisfactory drainage and ventilation needs no detailed analysis. These amenities, which middle class people in all industrial centres take for granted and forget that they constitute the basis of modern homes, are as yet unknown to the majority of industrial workers. Their houses are almost primitive with the additional disadvantage that they live in highly congested areas wherein fresh air and water, natural light and sunshine are denied to them. Altogether the various enquiries into industrial housing present a picture which is depressing. Living in such houses, industrial workers cannot be expected to show higher efficiency however much their conditions of work in the factories are improved.

IV—*Housing on Plantations.*

(i) *Tea Plantations.*

A. *Assam—*

The garden labour in Assam falls into two categories—settled labour which lives on the gardens and *basti* labour which lives in adjacent villages and works irregularly or in particular seasons only. Housing is invariably provided for settled labour, which forms about 80% of the total labour force. Usually the employers themselves arrange for the building of houses, but some of them permit the labourers to put up their own houses, providing them with the necessary material and paying them wages for the time spent in construction. The houses are either built in a line, each house having a small compound or two houses having a common compound, or are clustered about as in a village. On some gardens, both these arrangements are found. There is an appreciable number of back-to-back barrack lines of 10 to 12 rooms in Assam though this system is given up in new constructions.

The types of houses in Assam tea gardens may be described under three broad heads, kutcha, semi-pucca and pucca. The kutcha houses are made of split bamboo (*ekra*) and plaster walls, thatch roof and mud floors. The semi-pucca houses have brick plinth and brick walls for a few feet, the upper walls being of split bamboo and plaster. The frame work is of metal or timber and the roof is of thatch or corrugated iron sheets. The pucca houses are built in brick masonry over brick or cement plinth and have metal frames and corrugated iron roofs. Nearly 90 per cent of the houses in the Assam tea gardens are kutcha. The average size of

a house is 15'×12'. Kutcha houses generally have no windows or verandahs. But as the *ckra* walls are not properly plastered and as they do not join up with the roofs, they provide sufficient ventilation. On the other hand. they afford poor protection against cold in winter. The pucca houses have a window and many have besides ridge-roof ventilation. Verandahs are not common. The houses are provided free of rent and repairs are generally done by the labourers themselves with material supplied by the planters once in two or three years. Each family gets a separate house, 6 persons including children being looked upon as the maximum.

The Royal Commission recommended the establishment of Boards of Health and Welfare who should lay down standard minimum requirements of housing and have the power to condemn houses unfit for habitation. It is regrettable to note that this recommendation has not yet been implemented. No effect has also been given to another recommendation about providing for a few standard lamps in housing areas.

The most usual source of water supply is open surface wells which the British Medical Association, Assam, has described as a most highly polluted and dangerous source of supply. Another objectionable source of water supply is from tanks and rivers. Tube-wells have been installed in several gardens but their progress was arrested by the non-availability of materials in war-time.

Kutcha drains are in evidene in most of the places. The Assam Valley Branch of the Indian Tea Association has recommended saucer-shaped pucca drains between houses as the sides do not easily fall in or get stamped in.

Nearly 90 per cent of the gardens have no latrines for the labourers, in spite of the high incidence of hookworm among them and their consequent debility. In the remaining 10 per cent cases, the number of latrines is neither adequate nor are they properly kept with the result that workers are forced to resort to the adjoining open spaces. Very few bathing and washing places have been provided in spite of the Royal Commission's suggestions for a serious attempt in this direction.

Access to workers' quarters is prohibited to all except the workers' relatives and friends. This means that planters can refuse anybody the right of entering the gardens in exercise of their right of private property. The following observations of the Royal Commission on Labour are well worth quoting in this connection: "We do not regard as satisfactory the existing position where the workers are largely isolated from outside influence and any member of the public may be effectively prevented from approaching the workers' lines except with the manager's permission. On principle it is objectionable that considerable areas included within the garden grants in which large numbers of workers are settled, can be entirely closed to any one who may be interested in their welfare. We have considered the point submitted to us, namely, the danger of interested people attempting to make use of the illiterat and ignorant labour force on the tea gardens for purposes unconnected with labour, but this is a risk to which every industry in India is exposed, and we think it better to face it than to continue a policy which inevitably gives rise to suspicion and is liable to be abused. We were informed that in the Surma Valley there are recognised public rights of way to all gardens lines, and in the Dooars

where the labour force is similar in composition to that of Assam, the garden lease usually requires the planter to maintain roads from North to South and East to West which shall be open to the public. It is in the Assam Valley that the right of access is most needed and we recommend that steps should be taken to secure public contact with workers' dwellings on all plantations".[1] This recommendation has not been implemented by the Assam Government on the ground that there was no justification for enforcing indiscriminate public rights of way over private estates. As the workers are illiterate, it is very difficult for them to form associations and have their legitimate grievances redressed unless and until they are outsiders. It is thus necessary to throw open to the public by legislation all roads in gardens which lead to workers' lines. Unless and until this is done, there cannot be much hope of the amelioration of the conditions of workers.

B. *Bengal*—

In Bengal, housing is provided by all estates to the settled or resident labour. In the Dooars, the houses are built in barrack lines scattered over the gardens, each house usually having its own separate compound. In many cases the houses are built in rows one near the other with about 20 feet space between two rows. The houses are made with bamboo or iron frame, have bamboo matting plastered with mud for walls and have thatched roofs. In many cases, the walls are made of pieces of plywood sheets from discarded tea chests or rusty tin sheets nailed haphazardly to the bamboo frame. The average size of a house is 225 sq. ft. The length varies from 14' to 26' and the breadth from 11' to 14'. One house is given to each labour and no rent is charged. The houses have usually a plinth of 3" to 16". The roofs are low and the light is insufficient. Windows, where provided, are usually kept closed with a view either to shut out the cold winds or evil spirits or both. The houses in the Terai are similar to those in the Dooars except that they have practically no plinth. In Darjeeling, the pre-war constructions are of wooden plank walls and corrugated iron sheet roofs. Since 1939, however, houses are made of bamboo and mud walls with thatched roofs as wooden planks and iron sheets have become very scarce. There is a complete absence of proper drainage in all the lines in the gardens. The incidence of Pthysis is high in these gardens as a resul dark, dingy in illventilated quarters. Kutcha and pucca wells form the source of water-supply in the Dooars and the Terai. In Darjeeling, no special arrangements have been made for supplying water to the workers who get it from small springs running through the gardens. These go dry in summer and cause untold hardships to the labourers. The majority of the gardens have no latrines for their labour.

C. *The Punjab and United Provinces*—

In the Kangra Valley, nearly 10 per cent of the workers live in quarters providing by the planters. The houses are mostly kutcha one-room tenements with mud or brick walls and corrugated iron and slate roofs. The rooms are 14'×14' and have no windows. On an average, 4 to 5 workers live in every room. In Dehra Dun, nearly 50 per cent of the workers live on the gardens in houses provided by the planters. These houses are also kutcha with mud walls and thatched roofs. The rooms are

[1] *Report* p. 378

generally 12′×12′ or 12′×10′. A few estates in Almora have provided for their labour pucca double-storeyed barracks with a kitchen room attached to each at the backside. In all these areas, water for drinking and washing is obtained from springs or streams on the estate. Latrines are nowhere provided.

D. *South India*—

In South India, free housing is provided for all workers other than casual and local labour. The usual accommodation consists of a room 12′×10′ or 10′×10′ in a block comprising 5 to 10 rooms. In most of the recently built lines in the important tea districts, a kitchen 12′×6′ is also provided for every room. The older types of houses are built with broken rubble and mortar and have corrugated iron or tiled roofs. The new types of houses are built in concrete or broken rubble with cement pointing and sometimes in concrete bricks. The plinths are from 12 to 18 inches high and many lines have a concrete apron paving, 7 feet wide, in front which slopes from the base of the plinth to a pucca concrete drain. There are drains aso at the back of the houses. Chimneys are provided in the kitchen in new lines while smoke vents on the ridges of the roofs or cowl tiles provide ventilation in older ones. The new types of houses have roofs of tiles or asbestos sheets. Many estates have also fixed gutterings to the eaves to lead out rain water. On either side of the line there are one or two pucca bathrooms separately for males and females. A few houses seen in the Anamallais and the Wynaad are exceptionally good providing a semi-enclosed verandah 12′×5′, a living room 10′×12′ and a kitchen 12′×7′ and a separate bathroom, enclosed by pucca walls but without roof for every quarter. Many estates provide water to the lines through pipes and taps and there is usually one tap for every line. Bore-hole latrines have been provided in nearly all estates, generally two for every line but sometimes even one for every room in the line. A few estates have provided septic tank latrines for their labour. Although most of the recently built houses have kitchens, there is not even a single instance in the South Indian tea gardens where both the living room and the kitchen are allotted to the same family. The general practice on the other hand is to house one family, consisting of husband, wife and children, in the kitchen and to accommodate two such families in the living room. Cases have also come to notice where a portion of the front verandah has been enclosed with a view to accommodating another family. Often the living room is divided by improvised partitions with a view to obtaining some privacy for the different families living therein. Sometimes up to 14 persons live in a room 10 ft. × 12 ft. In many of the Indian-owned estates in Central Travancore and Nilgiris, housing leaves much to be desired. In some estates back-to-back lines with low walls of mud and rooms of 8 ft. × 10 ft. without windows are used to accommodate the workers. The floor is often uneven with pits and holes. In some cases walls are of bamboo matting. Water is obtained from springs and latrines are not provided.

(ii) *Coffee Plantations*

In Coffee estates housing conditions are generally bad. In the Shevaroys, Coorg and Mysore, the labourers are housed worse than cattle. Back-to-back barracks built 40 to 50 years ago house the workers. The rooms are 10 ft. × 10 ft. or 10 ft. × 8 ft. with no windows or entrance for light and air. The doors are low and narrow. There are no verandahs.

The houses stand on a rickety foundation. The walls are of mud and are full of holes and crevices which proclaim that they have not seen repairs for years. In the rains, dampness makes the walls sodden and there is danger to life and limb, as there is no knowing when the whole structure would give way, burying the inmates under the debris. However, in Coorg, the Consolidated Coffee Estates have launched a new building programme for housing their workers and a few blocks of houses of two quarers each have been built on many of their estates. The houses consist of a verandah, a living room and a kitchen, are built of brick and mortar, and have tiled roofs. The living room has an extension to the side of the verandah 6 ft. × 6 ft., which can be screened off and formed into an additional room. The living room is 12 ft. × 10 ft. and the kitchen 12 ft. × 6 ft. Two doors and two windows are provided for the living room and a door and a window for the kitchen. There are chimneys to the kitchen to let out smoke. Bath rooms are not provided. Even piped water supply is rarely found on the coffee estates and workers have to depend on wells and springs. Nor are latrines generally seen on these estates.

(iii) *Rubber Plantations*

On rubber estates, the quarters are generally built in barracks. In Travancore, most of the larger estates provide an enclosed common verandah at the back which is utilised for cooking purposes. In Malabar, separte cooking places are not generally provided. Rubber estates being mostly in the plains and not subject to severe monsoon, the houses are usually provided with large windows. Most of the workers on rubber estates live single and 6 to 8 persons occupy one room 12 ft. × 10 ft. or 10 ft. × 10 ft. A few back-to-back barracks without proper ventilation were also noticed. On the Yendayar estate in Mundakayam, the houses for the workers were good. The houses were built in blocks of two quarters each quarter having a front verandah and a kitchen and a bathroom. The living room was 12 ft. × 12 ft. or 12 ft. × 10 ft. the kitchen 7 ft. × 7 ft. and the bathromm 7 ft. × 5 ft. A sink 2 ft. × 2 ft. with an outlet for water is provided in the kitchen. Water taps and latrines are provided. In smaller estates, mostly Indian-owned, employing from 10 to 15 workers, the lines are often thatched sheds with walls of grass. No separate kitchen is provided and sometimes repairs of the house are the responsibility of the workers themselves who are mostly local people. But for the one estate mentioned above, no estate has provided latrines for the use of the workers. Water supply is generally from open wells and streams and rivers.

V—*Housing in the Mining Industries*

(i) *Gold Mining* (Kolar Field)

At the end of June 1944, the gold mining companies had provided 12,348 huts for their workers. Of these, 10,404 are of bamboo *thathies* 1,358 in reinforced concrete and 586 in masonry. The huts are either single or double-roomed. Single-room huts consist of a room and a kitchen with an open verandah in the front. Huts are constructed in lines but are independent. The single hut is about 18 ft. × 9 ft. and the double hut 24 ft.×9 ft. Ventilation is provided by windows. Separate bath-ooms are provided for double huts. The average number of persons per hut is 5.25. The lines are electrically lighted and water is laid on at convenient spots. There is no separate tap for each hut nor are electric

lights provided in the tenements themselves. The rent charged for a single hut is annas eight and for a double hut Re. 1 to Rs. 1|4. There is provision for common latrines separately for males and females. 75% of the latrines are of the 'pan' type and the rest either of the 'septic tank' or 'open' type. For a total male population in the Companies' area of about 30,000 persons, 215 latrines with nearly 1,500 seats are provided, while for a total female population of about 33,000, 186 latrines with about 1,273 seats are provided. The workmen's lines are divided into sectors with an Assistant Sanitary Overseer in charge. The surroundings of the houses are clean and the lines have been well laid out. There is a Sanitary Mistry in charge of blocks containing 250 to 300 houses to look after their cleanliness and sanitation. There is a post office and market within easy distance. Of over 20,000 workers employed, about 76 per cent are housed in quarters provided by the employers in the mining area. The distance between these quarters and the place of work does not exceed a mile. Workers who are not provided in companies' quarters have to live in small huts outside the mining area paying rent of Rs. 2 to Rs. 5 per month. The condition in these huts is extremely unsatisfactory. Even in the companies' quarters, the *thathi* houses are said to provide but inadequate shelter during the rains on account of leakage, etc.

(ii) *Iron Ore Mining*

In the Iron Ore Industry, housing has been provided for the workers at most of the mining centres, the companies as well as the contractors providing houses. At Gua 100 per cent of the workers are housed by the Company; at Gorumahisani 25 per cent of company labour and 90 per cent of contract labour is housed; and at Noamundi 49 per cent of company labour and a smaller proportion of the contract labour are accommodated. The housing provided by the companies is definitely better than that provided by contractors. At Noamundi and Gorumahisani, apart from superior type of houses for officers, there are five types of quarters for workers and staff. The first type has two bed rooms and three small rooms. The second and third types also have two bed rooms but have no small rooms. They have, however, a kitchen and a store room. All the three have verandahs, bathrooms and latrines. The fourth type has one bed room, front verandah, kitchen, latrine and bathroom. The fifth type is of single room with verandah on either side. At Noamundi there are 456 quarters of all types which house 622 workers. At Gorumahisani there are 220 quarters. The extent of congestion in these quarters is not much greater than in other industrial centres. In some of the rooms, workers live with their families and the average number of occupants is about 5, husband, wife and three children. In many single-room tenements of the fifth type, however, the congestion is greater and males and females who are not related to one another live together. Workers' quarters are situated not very far from the minimum faces and no transport is necessary. Market and post office facilities are also available near the workers' quarters. Allotment of quarters is made according to pay and seniority. No sub-letting is allowed and eviction is only by legal process. Contractors' labour at Noamundi and Gorumahisani lives partly in contractors' houses and partly in thatched huts of their own in the surrounding villages. The contractor's houses were tolerably good at

Gorumashasani being neat and clean with an adequate number of privies and water taps. But at Noamundi almost all the rooms were in a dilapidated condition and sanitary arrangements left much to be desired.

(iii) *Manganese Mining*

In the Central Provinces, the C.P. Manganese Ore Company, which owns the bulk of the manganese mines, provides housing to nearly 90 per cent of its imported labour. The rest live in neighbouring villages. The site where quarers are built is known as 'camp' Different types of quarters are provided in different mines as each manager has designed quarters in the light of experience gained and material available. Generally, rooms are built in barracks. Each room is usually 10 ft. × 10 ft. with a verandah of 10 ft. × 6 ft. in front. The verandah is generally enclosed and used for cooking. In some mines a plinth of 9 inches to 1 feet is provided, while there is no plinth in other mines The floors are of *rammed murran* and the walls are generally made of bricks. Windows are usually 2½ ft.×2½ ft. Mangalore and country tiles and, in a few quarters, asbestos sheeting are provided as roofing. No lights are provided. In many mines the quarters are built back to back. An improved type of quarters has been built in Kandri mines which provides a living room 11 ft. × 11 ft. and a kitchen 11 ft. × 8 ft. There are no verandahs but a passage is built between the two rooms. The floor is of cement. In another mine (Mansar) there are 297 temporary quarters for seasonal labour which are built back to back. They have no windows, nor have they any verandahs.

Latrines and urinals are not provided in the camps but, in some mines, defecation areas are marked off and labour is forced, as far as possible, to use them. In some mines, trenching of night soil is practised and in others large herds of swine are kept. Drinking water is obtained from *pucca* wells which are properly protected and regularly disinfected. There are no bathrooms in labourers' quarters. Allotment of quarters is made by the contractor under the supervision of the manager. Generally, one family is given one quarter and no rent is charged. Overcrowding was noticed in several cases as the accommodation provided is insufficient for a large family and two quarters are very rarely given to such families. Workers do not enjoy the ordinary rights of tenancy in these houses. Housing provided by Indian concerns is very poor. The walls are made of grass or bamboo matting. Ventilation and sanitary arrangements are almost absent. Kutcha wells or nalas provide water for drinking and washing.

The Shivrajpur Syndicate in the Bombay Province has provided two types of houses. The artisan type is generally given to workshop hands. It consists of four rooms: 12 ft. × 12 ft., 12 ft. × 9 ft., 12 ft. × 6 ft. and 7 ft. × 6 ft. There are 81 such quarters in 9 blocks. The other type is meant for imported labour and there are 210 quarters in 14 blocks. These are single room tenements measuring 10 ft. × 8½ ft. They are built in stone masonry and have corrugated iron roofs. These quarters were condemned as unfit for human habitation by the Assistant Director of Public Health in 1943 and the Company has already dismantled many of them. The Company has started building a new type of houses to accommodate 50 workers. They are in 5 blocks. Each quarter will have a room

12 ft. × 12 ft. and a kitchen 8 ft. × 6 ft. There will be a front verandah 12 ft. × 6 ft. and a back verandah 4 ft. × 6 ft. The plinth is two feet. Large doors and windows are also being provided for improved ventilation. Water supply is from seven wells fitted with electric lift pumps and distributed by means of pipes and taps. 12 sets of latrines with a total of 126 seats are provided but they are not generally used.

In the Sandur State, about 50% of the total labour force are provided with quarters by the Mining Company. They are, however, only ramshackle tin sheds with kutcha floor. Many are low-roofed ricketty structures with walls and roofs of flattened kerosene tins. No latrines are provided but piped water supply is made available to the labourers.

(iv) *Salt Mining*

Most of the miners in Khewra and nearly 60 per cent of the total operatives including those employed in workshops live in their own houses. The miners are allowed to build houses on Government land in certain colonies. They are given building advances which bear no interest; and no rent is charged for the use of the land. Buildings are mostly of stone which is procured locally. Many of the miners' houses are very commodious and contain as many as 5 to 6 rooms including a cowshed and a courtyard. There is no special housing scheme for workers other than miners. The engineering workers are, however, accommodated in free quarters and barracks. Some of these contain two rooms and a verandah with a courtyard while others contain one room only. Some of the one-room tenements are in extremely bad conditions but it is stated that the Government have a programme of building quarters for engineering and daily-paid workers. Although there are no separate taps for the workers, water taps are provided in a central place from which the miners have to fetch water. There are complaints of inadequacy of water supply. In the housing colonies, communal latrines are provided, separate arrangements being made for males and females. Most of the houses are situated within one mile of the mines.

(v) *Mica Mining*

Housing accommodation is provided only to a small percentage of workers who live at the mines. The usual type of house in Bihar is built entirely of bamboo and grass. It looks like a tent of leaves held in position by a strong bamboo or wooden pillar. It is not liked by the miners who prefer to walk daily 4 to 6 miles each way and prefer to stay in their own cottages which are definitely superior to those provided by the employers. In Madras, the quarters, are all kutcha and consist of round thatched huts of a conical shape with a floor space of about 54 square feet and of mud huts with thatched roofs in Rajputana. The majority of the workers stay in villages adjoining the mine areas. Their houses in the villages are also kutcha with mud walls and thatched roofs. Contract labour, which comes for temporary work, such as earth clearance, etc., often lives in the open, sleeping under the trees. Congestion in the few huts provided by the owners in acute and often a large number of miners, their families and even strangers are housed in the same quarter. No adequate arrangements are made for water or sanitation.

VI. *Housing on Railways*

The general policy with regard to housing of raiway employees, as laid down by the Railway Board is to provide houses only to those who

are required, for special reasons, to live close to their places of work (the medical staff, station staff, running staff, carriage and shed staff, and those employed on the permanent way) and in those cases where private enterprise would not be forth-coming to meet the demand for housing.[1] In light of this policy and in view of the absence of any scheme of provision of housing by Government or any other public agency and the difficulties of the workers themselves constructing their own houses, it is obvious that the existing housing accommodation for railway workers is considerably limited. Hence, many are obliged to live in houses constructed by private landlords. The general feeling among the workers is that quarters should be provided for all categories of staff.

Full details regarding the percentage of employees housed at present in railway quarters are not available. The G.I.P. Railway reports that 23% of its workers have been provided with houses. On the Bengal Nagpur Railway, the percentage is 51. The East Indian Railway reports that 50% of its workers, excluding the clerical and workshop staff, have been provided with quarters. The North Western Railway houses abour 38 per cent of its employees. If the statistics supplied by these four Class I Railways are representative of the conditions on other Class I Railways, it is clear that an appreciably large percentage of the staff is not given the benefit of accommodation in railway quarters. The only other Class I railway (the Jodhpur State Railway) which has replied to our questionnaire in this context, notes that 80% of its workers have been provided with houses. The position seems to be fairly satisfactory on Class II and Class III railways, as can be seen from the following table

TABLE 140.

Percentage of Workers housed on different Railways

Class I		Class II		Class III	
Railways	Percentage housed	Railways	Percentage housed	Railways	Percentage housed
G.I.P. ...	23	Barsi Light	80	Bombay Port Trust Permanent staff Drawing upto Rs. 300.	
E.I.R. ...	50 (excluding clerical (2,500) and workshop (20,000) staff)	Mewar	on the line, 100% Office & workshop staff, 50%	(a) Clerical (b) Outdoor	20 58
B.N.R. ...	51			Temporary staff drawing between Rs. 50 and 300.	Nil.
Jodhpur State Railway	88			Clerical & outdoor Under Rs. 50 Daily-rated	1.6 33.4 17.8
N.W.R.	38 (approximately)			*Matheran* *Mcleods* *Mewar* On line, Others, *Jagadhari*	80 100 100 50 47.3

[1] Memorandum submitted by to the Royal Commission on Labour in India, p. 42.

The scale of accommodation varies on different railways but the following details give a general idea of the standard of housing provided for different categories of non-gazetted staff drawing up to Rs. 100 per mensem.

Mincrals.—One room of 80 to 120 sq. ft.; a verandah of 45 to 55 sq. ft. and sometimes a courtyard of 100 sq. ft. A kitchen is provided in some cases e.g., in the Bombay Port Trust Railway. On the South Indian Railway, one of the types has two rooms of 200 sq. ft. and also a latrine.

Skilled Artisans.—One or two rooms of 140 to 200 sq. ft., a verandah of about 100 sq. ft. and in some cases a courtyard. In some cases a bath-room (e.g. in the B.N. Railway) and a kitchen (e.g. the B.B. & C.I. Railway) are provided. On the South Indian Railway, the rooms have an area of 280 sq. ft. in one type and 385 sq. ft. in another with verandah of 120 sq. ft. and 250 sq. ft. respectively. These huoses also have store, kitchen, bathroom and latrine.

Junior Subordinates.—Two rooms with a total area of 200 to 310 sq. ft. One or two verandahs of 100 to 200 sq. ft., kitchen, 40 to 76 sq. ft. and, in some cases, courtyard, bathroom or bathing place and store. Separate water-closet (flush-out latrine) is provided in some cases, e.g., in the Bombay Port Trust. On the South Indian Railway, one type has 4 rooms of 600 sq. ft., with verandahs of 420 sq. ft., store, bathroom and latrine

Subordinates.—Two to five rooms with a total area of 300 to 1,600 sq. ft., one or more verandahs, kitchen, bathroom, store and in some cases a courtyard. In some cases, separate water closet (e.g., in the Bombay Port Trust and in the B.B. & C.I. Railways) and outhouses (e.g., in the B.B. & C.I. and S.I. Railways) are provided. On the South Indian Raiway, one type has 5 rooms, of 1,160 sq. ft., a verandah of 1,150 sq. ft., a store of 76 sq. ft., and a kitchen of 120 sq. ft.

For a detailed study of the housing conditions of workers in the selected centres on the sampled railways, information was specially collected by Dr. Mukhtar in respect of the number of rooms, density of occupancy and the available amenities of water, light, drainage etc. The centres selected for different railways and the number of houses sampled were as follows: For the North Western, 450 houses at Lahore and 76 at Dinanagar; for the Bengal Nagpur, 63 at Kharagpur and 61 at Chakradharpur; for the Baroda State Railway, 81 at Goya Gate; for the Bombay Port Trust, 45 at Bombay; for the G.I.P., 84 at Bombay and 23 at Narsinghpur; and for the S.I.R., 68 at Villupuram, 69 at Madras and 70 at Shoranur.

As the enquiry was confined to non-gazetted staff drawing upto Rs. 100 per mensem, the vast majority of houses surveyed are one room dwellings only. The percentages of such dwellings are necessarily higher in a rural than in an urban centre. On a Class III railway, like the Bombay Port Trust Railway, all the sampled houses are one-room dwellings only. In big urban centres like Lahore, Madras and Goya Gate there is a small percentage of houses with 3 rooms and more. It may be mentioned here that some of the houses with 3 or more rooms at Goya Gate were private houses. The following table (table 141) shows the different sizes of in each of the selected centres,

TABLE 141.

Percentage Distribution according to Size of Dwellings in each Sampled Centre.

	North Western		Bengal Nagpur		Baroda State	Bombay Port Trust	Great Indian Peninsula		South Indian Railway		
	Lahore	Dinanagar	Kharagpur	Chakradharpur	Goya Gate	Bombay	Bombay	Narsingpur	Villupuram	Madras	Shoranur
One room ...	53.0	80.0	70.0	44.3	62.3	100.0	100.0	82.6	64.7	73.9	56.6
Two rooms ...	33.0	15.0	30.0	47.5	25.6	...	...	17.4	35.3	21.7	38.1
Three rooms ...	7.6	5.0	...	6.6	7.3	...	...	...	...	2.9	5.3
Four rooms ...	5.3	...	...	1.6	2.4	...	...	...	...	1.5	...
Five rooms ...	1.1	...	...	...	2.4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total ...	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	00.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Density of Occupancy.—The first important feature of the houses of railway workers, as in the case of others, is the higher density of occupancy in one-room dwellings as against dwellings with two rooms and more. This is shown in Table 142.

TABLE 142.

Density of Occupancy in Railway Dwellings.

Size of dwellings	North Westren		Bengal Nagpur		Baroda State	Bombay Port Trust	Great Indian Peninsula		South Indian		
	Lahore	Dinanagar	Kharagpur	Chakradharpur	Goya Gate	Bombay	Bombay	Narsingpur	Villupuram	Madras	Shoranur
One room ...	4·7	3·7	6·3	5·4	4·9	4·2	4·9	3·9	4·9	5·3	5·4
Two rooms ...	2.6	2.7	3·7	3·5	2.0	...	...	3.6	2.9	2.3	3.1
Three rooms ...	2.0	2.0	...	3·9	1.2	...	...	...	...	2.5	2.8
Four rooms ...	1.6	...	...	1.8	1.1	...	...	...	...	1.5	...
Five rooms ...	1.5	...	...	...	0.8	...	...	...	...	...	...
General average ...	3.0	4.0	...	...	2.7	4.2	4.9	3.8	3.9	3.9	3.2

Though the majority of houses surveyed were one-room or two-room ones, it was interesting to note a fairly high percentage of dwellings possessing verandahs and courtyards. One-room dwellings had generally no kitchens and bathrooms. The position as regards latrines was no better. With regard to water supply it was seen that there were no separate taps attached in almost any of the houses surveyed. Water supply was, however, provided by means of common taps or wells. It was complained that this supply was inadequate. There was no provision for electric lighting except in centres on the N.-W. Railway, the Baroda State Railway and the S. I. Railway, though the percentage of houses served was small. Table 143 indicates the position in respect of the different amenities in a detailed manner.

TABLE 143.

Details regarding Amenities provided on Railways

(Percentage of Houses possessing these)

Amenities	North Westren Lahore			North Westren Dinanagar			Bengal Nagpur Kharagpur			Bengal Nagpur Chakradharpur			Baroda State Baroda			Bombay Port Trust Bombay		
	All	One room	Two room	All	One room	Two room	All	One room	Two room	All	One room	Two room	All	One room	Two room	All	One room	Two room
Subsidiary	4.0	0.4	1.4	10.0	12.5	Nil	23.8	4.5	68.4	41.0	3.7	69.0	12.3	16.0	9.5	Nil	Nil	Nil
Verandah	50.2	42.9	55.4	35.0	25.0	66.7	100	100	100	85.2	66.6	100	71.6	88.0	42.9	24.4	24.4	Nil
Courtyard	49.8	43.2	58.1	25.0	6.2	100.0	100	100	100	85.2	66.6	100	40.9	48.0	52.4	Nil	Nil	Nil
Kitchen	15.6	3.4	19.6	15.0	Nil	66.7	47.6	54.5	31.6	34.4	Nil	55.2	37.0	20.0	52.4	13.3	13.3	Nil
Bathroom	7.8	Nil	4.1	10	Nil	33.3	Nil	Nil	Nil	3.3	Nil	Nil	23.5	20.0	28.6	100	100	Nil
Latrines	92.4	94.5	91.2	15	Nil	66.7	87.3	81.8	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	Nil
Water Supply... ...	12.7	1.3	12,2	Nil	Nil	Nil	20.6	Nil	68.4	44.3	25.9	58.6	28.4	4.0	57.1	Nil	Nil	Nil
Electric Light ...	16.7	8.4	20.3	55.0	56.2	33.3	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	16.0	4.0	28.6	Nil	Nil	Nil
Drainage (Satisfactory) ...	64.9	60.1	83.2	5.0	Nil	Nil	16.7	18.4	Nil	49.2	22.2	69	18.5	Nil	38.0	84.4	Nil	Nil
Ventilation (Satisfactory)	62.0	56.5	76.4	30.0	25.0	33.3	38.1	11.3	100	41.0	Nil	69	90.1	86.0	81.0	100	100	Nil

TABLE 143—*contd.*

Details regarding Amenities provided on Railways

(Percentage of Houses possessing these)

Amenities	G.I.P.						South India								
	Bombay			Narsinghpur			Villupuram			Madras			Sharanur		
	All	One room	Two room	All	One room	Two room	All	One room	Two room	All	One room	Two room	All	One room	Two room
Subsidiary	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	8.7	7.8	6.7	10.5	2.3	24.1
Verandah	Nil	Nil	Nil	100	100	100	52.9	65.9	29.2	92.8	94.1	86.3	80.3	74.4	86.2
Courtyard	Nil	Nil	Nil	17.4	5.3	75.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	29.0	31.4	20.0	73.7	65.1	82.8
Kitchen	Nil	Nil	Nil	13.0	Nil	75.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	56.7	43.1	73.3	94.7	93.0	96.6
Bathroom	11.9	11.9	Nil	8.7	Nil	50.0	Nil	Nil	Nil	31.4	29.4	26.7	11.8	9.3	16.0
Latrines	100.0	100.0	Nil	8.7	Nil	50.0	41.2	25.0	70.9	97.0	96.1	100.0	69.9	67.4	82.8
Water supply	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	5.8	Nil	6.7	1.3	2.4	Nil
Electric Light	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	52.9	34.1	87.5	5.8	Nil	6.7	5.3	2.4	10.3
Drainage (Satisfactory) ...	35.7	35.7	Nil	4.5	Nil	25.0	Nil	Nil	Nil	47.8	39.2	33.3	6.6	Nil	20.9
Ventilation (Satisfactory) ...	84.5	84.5	Nil	91.3	89.5	100.0	Nil	Nil	Nil	47.8	45.1	73.3	27.6	...	62.1

VII. *Conclusions.*

A. *Relationship between House-rent and Income.*

There have been very few enquiries on this subject in India. According to the Bombay Labour Office enquiry of 1938, which covered Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur, the percentage of rent to income in the city of Bombay varied from 8.91 in the income-group Rs. 95 and below Rs. 100, to 42.67 in the lowest income-group Rs. 10 and below Rs. 15. It was observed that as the income increased the percentage of rent diminished. The average percentage for the families covered by the enquiry was 17.07, the percentage of rent paid to income in the case of 55 per cent of the families lying between 18.30 and 23.51. The percentage of rent to income in Ahmedabad was 14.09 for all income-classes, the percentage varying from 5.97 in the income-group Rs. 95 and below Rs. 100 to 39.7 in the income-group Rs. 10 and below Rs. 15. The highest proportion of rent to income in Sholapur was 26.55 per cent in the case of the income-group below Rs. 20. The average amount of expenditure on rent and proportion of rent to family expenditure for other areas in the province of Bombay are set out in the following table[1]:—

TABLE 144.

Average Amount of Expenditure on Rent and Proportion of rent to family expenditure.

Centre.	Average amount of expenditure on house rent.	Percentage of expenditure on house rent to total expenditure.
	Rs. as. p.	
Jalgaon ..	2- 3- 3	9.03
Amalner ..	2- 7- 6	10.07
Chalisgaon ..	1-13- 9	7.20
Dhulia ..	2- 6- 5	9.33
Viramgam ..	2- 0- 9	7.20
Nadiad ..	1- 6- 5	4.83
Broach ..	1-10- 2	5.64
Surat ..	2- 1- 3	7.00
Barsi ..	1- 1- 2	6.19
Gadag ..	0-13-10	4.14
Hubli ..	1- 1- 6	4.59

According to the housing enquiry of mill-workers in Cawnpore undertaken by the U. P. Bureau of Economic Intelligence, "The monthly income of 57 per cent families ranged between Rs. 10 and Rs. 25 and of another 29 per cent between Rs. 25 and Rs. 40; the maximum concentration of families occurring in the income-level Rs. 15-25. Again, 86 per cent families paid rents below Rs. 3-8-0 per mensem; while 62 per cent paid (rents between Rs. 1-8-0 and Rs. 3-8-0. The proportion of families paying comparatively high rents was more in lower income-groups"[2]. The average rent as percentage of average income in each type of dwelling in different income-groups is shown in Table 145.

[1] *From the Report of the Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee, p. 274.*

[2] *Report on Housing Conditions of Mill Workers in Cawnpore, 1942, p. 40.*

TABLE 145.

Average Rent of each Type of Dwelling in different Income-groups in Cawnpore.

Income-groups	Average rernt of dwellings					Average rernt as percentage of average income				
	One-room	Two-room	Three-room	Four-room	All dwellings	One room	Two room	Three room	Four room	All dwellings
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Rs.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.					
5—10	1 4 6	1 2 7	...	...	1 3 11	15.5	13.6	...	...	15.0
10—15	1 5 3	1 10 4	2 10 0	1 14 0	1 6 11	10.7	13.0	21.4	15.6	11.5
15—20	1 9 2	2 0 6	1 10 0	...	1 10 10	9.3	11.7	9.5	...	9.8
20—25	2 0 11	2 1 4	2 6 0	...	2 1 2	9.8	9.6	10.8	...	9.8
25—30	2 6 1	2 5 3	4 4 0	4 0 0	2 6 11	8.9	8.9	15.2	15.2	9.1
30—40	2 11 2	3 2 1	6 0 10	1 0 0	2 14 11	8.0	9.4	18.2	3.0*	8.7
40—50	2 12 6	3 4 2	5 1 9	...	3 2 7	6.4	7.6	11.6	...	7.3
50—60	2 10 8	3 14 5	7 2 0	...	3 7 9	4.9	7.3	12.5	...	6.4
Above 60	3 3 1	4 4 3	4 12 0	4 8 0	3 14 11	4.7	5.8	6.7	6.2	5.4
All groups ...	2 0 1	2 8 4	4 7 6	3 1 1	2 3 6	8.6	9.0	13.4	6.8	8.8

*This dwelling is shared by 8 other families who together pay Rs. 9/-

An enquiry into the family budgets of industrial workers in Madras City[1] in 1938 revealed that, out of a representative sample of 641 budgets of workers in organised industries, 330 families or nearly 51 per cent paid a monthly rent of Rs. 3 and more but less than Rs. 6. Altogether 69 families, or nearly 11 per cent, paid a monthly rent of Rs. 6 and more but less than Rs. 8. Table 146 shows the frequency distribution of rents paid by families according to income-groups:—

[1] *Report on an Enquiry into the Family Budgets of Industrial Workers in Madras City, p. 37.*

TABLE 146.

Frequency Distribution of Rents paid by Families according to Income Groups.

Monthly rent actually paid by the family	Families with a monthly income of								
	Below Rs. 20	Rs. 20 to Rs. 30	Rs. 30 to Rs. 40	Rs. 40 to Rs. 50	Rs. 50 to Rs. 60	Rs. 60 to Rs. 70	Over Rs. 70	Total	Percentage to total
Nil	1	12	9	5	4	—	—	31	4.84
Below Rs. 2	6	31	36	14	7	4	4	102	15.91
Rs. 2 & below Rs. 3	11	24	15	6	2	1	—	59	9.20
Rs. 3 & below Rs. 4	19	38	48	10	6	1	—	122	19.03
Rs. 4 & below Rs. 5	7	36	38	26	12	2	—	121	18.88
Rs. 5 & below Rs.6	3	22	24	21	14	1	2	87	13.57
Rs. 6 & below Rs. 7	—	1	16	15	4	2	—	88	5.93
Rs. 7 & below Rs. 8	—	3	7	10	—	—	2	31	4.84
Rs. 8 & below Rs. 9	—	—	4	7	5	4	4	24	3.74
Rs. 9 & below Rs. 10	...	...	...	...	2	1	—	3	0.47
Rs. 10 and below Rs. 11	...	...	1	3	3	3	3	13	2.03
Rs. 11 and below Rs. 12	...	...	...	1		...	—	1	0.16
Rs. 12 and over	...	...	...	...	1	1	7	9	1.40
Total	47	167	198	118	69	20	22	641	100.00
Percentage to total	7.33	26.05	30.89	18.41	10.77	3.12	3.43	100.00	...

We thus notice that comparatively high rents are paid by the lower income-groups than by the higher income-groups.

B. *Distance from the Place of Work.*

It is not possible to give accurate distances from workers' residences to their places of work. In some cases, these are on the factory premises or at a stone's throw or ten minutes' walk. The fact that the *chawls* in localities near the mill areas are always overcrowded confirms the conclusions that workers try to live as near their places of work as possible. In such cases, the question of conveyance to and from the place of work does not arise. There are also many workers who live in various parts of cities away from their places of work. Where the distances are short, one does not mind walking on foot but, where long distances are involved, workers try to avail themselves of some cheap and quick means of conveyance which may be readily available at all times. Public vehicles in congested cities are not sufficient to cope with the demand and what is really worse is that they do not touch the working class quarters as they ply only on the main roads and most of the workers residing in out of the way quarters cannot readily make use of them. More than this, the ordinary workers, with his meagre income, cannot be expected to pay for his conveyance to and from place of work every day. The workers' representatives have rightly pointed out that, in the absence of proper housing facilities near the factories, cheap conveyances must be provided for such persons as are forced to live away from their places of work. Except some of the Railways that have regular train services often free between the main city and the workshop, there are very few managements providing transport facilities to their workers. The need for cheap and regular conveyance is felt to a great extent in the case of night shift workers. It is natural on the part of workers to demand that buses should be made available when the night shifts close. The employers should no doubt attend to it in their own interests.

C. *General Amenities.*

In cities and towns, general facilities are usually provided by the municipalities. Where municipalities are indifferent or where the work places are situated away from towns, these are very inadequate. The absence of regular markets leads the workers to resort to pedlars who often manage to wangle out a higher price for their wares of cheap and inferior quality. The contaminated and rotten foodstuffs that the workers have to buy from the gutterside vendors undermine their health and spread disease. In these days of rationing price control regulations, profiteering and blackmarketing, these troubles have multiplied to great dimensions The inconveniences to which the insufficiency of postal services gives rise are thus summed up by the Gujarat Regional Trade Union Council: "Large sections of workers are recruited from outside and they are required to send money by money orders to their dependants in villages. Generally there is a very great rush on post offices due to this; hence the post office and money order clerks fleece the workers by compelling them to pay some cash for sending the money order in time. Many workers have to stand in queues for long hours to be disappointed in the end. As the post office cannot tackle all of them in their working time, clerks get

overworked and easily fall a prey to corrupt practices". It is suggested that the number of post offices should be increased with due regard to the needs of working men and markets established in each working-class locality.

D. *Allotment and Eviction.*

Allotment of houses provided by the employers is made in different places. Ordinarily priority registers are maintained. In some cases, precedence is given to those whose nature of duties warrants it. The railways give priority to the traffic and station staff whose services may be required at any time and whose presence on the premises is necessary. Seniority or length of service is another consideration with some employers. Minimum pay or even an offer of allotment by rotation are the criteria in some places. Prevalence of malpractices and favouritism among the allotting authorities are not absent. The acceptance of illegal gratification in the form of *pagdi* ranging from Rs. 10 to Rs. 40 in congested towns, is a common scandal. Discrimination against trade union members is fairly common, and communalism was also noticed in some places in the allotment of quarters. Sub-letting is not normally practised but it is generally overlooked now-a-days in several places on account of lack of accommodation due to war. Eviction is effected in cases of discontinuance of service, arrears of rent, wilful damage to property; and in some cases, subletting. Verbal or written notices are served for this purpose. In some cases, warnings, threats, force and police are resorted to. The threat of eviction against trade union members is quite common. The Wimco of Madras state that 15 days' notice on either side is necessary for the termination of a tenancy. The agreement also contains the following clauses:— "The Company shall be at liberty to revoke this license at any time without notice and without giving or being liable to give any reason therefor to the licensee and thereupon the licensee will hand over to the Company vacant possession of the rooms". This provision, to say the least is most arbitrary and should not find a place in any agreement.

E. *The Land Acquisition Act.*

The Indian Industrial Commission put forward a proposal that employers shoud be enable to acquire land for housing their workers. The Royal Commission supported this principle and recommended that the Land Acquisition Act be so amended as to enable industrial concerns owned by individuals or associations of individuals to secure land for workers' quarters. The Land Acquisition Act was amended for this purpose in 1933. Its operations was, however, limited to the cases of acquisition for industrial concerns employing 100 persons or more. As to how far employers availed themselves of the amended Land Acquisition Act to secure land compulsorily to house their operatives is not exactly known, but one thing is certain that not many of them have done so. It appears that only very few employers availed themselves of the Act, e.g., the Bata Shoe Co. at Lahore, the Attock Oil Company at Rawalpindi, the Tata Iron and Steel Co. at Jamshedpur etc. Before the establishment of the Improvement Trust at Cawnpore, the British India Corporation alone constructed two workmen's settlements which were acquired under this Act. Since the inception of the Trust in 1920, all the contiguous areas to the city being notified for acquisition by it, no employer could acquire land

independently under the Act. The Trust was the only institution competent to transfer land to prospective buyers after properly developing it. In the past, employers did not care to acquire land. Since December, 1942, when His Excellency the Governor of U. P. urged the employers to provide sufficient accommodation for their workers, several of them have applied for and already acquired land for the purpose. The lease of land thus transferred provides a clause for safeguarding the interests of the workmen in matters of rent, eviction, etc. The rent to be charged will be fixed by the Trust so as to give a net return of not more than 4 per cent of the total capial outlay.

F. *Housing Policy.*

From what has already been stated it is clear that our cities have been growing in the most indesirable manner with the result that housing conditions of industrial workers have not improved in spite of the recommendations of the Royal Commission. In several cases the houses available are dingy, dark, damp, overcrowded and insanitary. The position has in fact greaty deteriorated in some places, especially during the war, though there are a few exceptions of good housing schemes by employers. It has already been stated that the Tata Iron and Steel Company are building up a model city at Jamshedpur, almost complete in every respect. Similarly, the Madura Mills have provided a housing colony, known as "Harveypatti," for their workers. Nearly, 600 houses have been built so far and the colony is almost self-sufficient from the point of view of amenities such as a school, a market, a dispensary, etc. There are a few other housing colonies of a similar type at Gokak, Nagpur, Cawnpore, etc.

Bad housing conditions have a definite bearing on health and efficiency. Our study of the housing situation leads us to the conclusion that the present state of affairs wherein responsibility for providing houses is statutorily shouldered by none cannot be allowed to continue if workers' health and morals and their standard of living are to be impoved. A clear, long-term housing policy, therefore, seems called for. Some persons hold that it is high time that housing was treated as a "public service" and received due attention from Government which, according to them, should take active steps to build cheap and sanitary houses. Others think that employers alone should bear this responsibility. No less important a concern than the Tata Iron and Steel Company considers that housing should be a charge on industry and that the haphazard and uncontrolled growth of indusrial settlements and slums created by private landlords should be definitely put an end to. The consensus of opinion, however, seems to favour a scheme wherein all parties—Government, employers and municipalities—have a share commensurate with their responsibility. As employers, the Government of India have now accepted the responsibility of providing suitable quarters to their own workers and have in view a scheme for enforcing standard conditions for industrial housing. According to them, the worker's house must in future comprise 2 rooms, a kitchen, a bath, a lavatory and verandahs, both at the back and in the front. We have given due consideration to this problem and feel that employers, especially in big urban centres, will not be able to discharge their duties to the satisfaction of all concerned, if they are statutorily asked to erect *standard* houses for their workers. The reasons are obvious. Apart from being a heavy burden on their resources, they will not be

able to get the necessary economic rent because of the workers' low earnings. The municipalities cannot finance the construction of houses, as their resources are generally inadequate. They can at best supply housing colonies with water, light and drainage. The only alternative under the circumstances seems to be for Government to step in and assume general control of industrial housing. We indicate below the broad outlines of a policy which may be statutorily laid down.

The main desideratum is the enactment of an Industrial Housing Act by the Government of India providing for the creation of an All-India Industrial Housing Board and Provincial or Regional Boards. We presume that there will in future be a systematic planning of industries under the auspices of Government and that, once it is decided to allow an industry to be set up at a particular place, the Housing Boards would deal with the construction of workers' quarters according to a pre-arranged plan. The proposed Housing Boards should be of a tripartite character, due representation being given to employers, employees and Government. They should be left to decide in each individual case whether the financing of housing should be a duty of employers or Government or both. Thus, generally speaking, if an industrial establishment is set up in a rural area or in an out-of-the-way place, where land and raw materials are cheap and where no alternative private housing is available, the employer might be asked to house the workers at his own cost. The position would be different in urban areas, owing to the scarcity and high values of land sites. The State should here accept a direct responsibility for the housing of workers and provide capital finance for the same. We are of opinion that the capital outlay on workers' houses should be raised by Government and advanced to the All-India Housing Board. This board will co-ordinate the activities of Provincial or Regional Boards and advance funds to each according to its needs. The recurrent expenditure—interest, depreciation, maintenance, repairs etc.—may be distributed between employers and workers, the latter paying it in the form of monthly rent which should in no case exceed a certain percentage of earnings (say, 10 per cent.).

It should be left to the Provincial or Regional Boards to decide in each case the agency for the construction of houses. The services of Improvement Trusts may be utilised where they already exist; otherwise the Housing Boards may deal with all questions of housing policy including actual construction, standards of accommodation, ownership, rent, etc. Rules and Regulations in respect of housing standards may be laid down under the Housing Act. It has already been stated that tenements which workers occupy are generally overcrowded, taking into account not only the dimensions of rooms and the aggregate number of occupants but also their age and sex distribution. It is also apparent that sex distribution in itself may determine the minimum requirements of a family in respect of bed-room accommodation. A married worker must have a basic minimum of at least two living rooms, a kitchen, front and back verandah, a bath room, a lavatory and a small enclosed courtyard, if he and his family are to have privacy and sanitary and healthy conditions of living and if his children are to be brought up in an atmosphere free from the dirt and squalor, which unfortunately surround them today. The Industrial Housing Act should confer the ordinary rights of tenancy on workers. It has often been complained that many employers keep a watch on their

movements in quarters provided by them. In some cases, the *chowkidars* disallow the entry of outsiders if they fall in the category of 'undesirables' in the eyes of their employers. Trade union leaders have generally no access to these quarters although their contact with workers at their homes is necessary. It is only after the factory hours that workers get some leisure, and if their quarters are inaccessible to trade unionists it becomes difficult for them to discuss their grievances as they arise. This state of affairs is rather unsatisfactory and we feel that, once the quarters come under the direct control and management of the proposed tripartite Housing Boards, it may be possible for workers to move and work in an atmosphere of freedom.

We feel that regional dispersal of industries and industrial housing is a great necessity. The Housing Boards should attend to the dispersal of industries in rural and semi-urban areas to avoid the dreadful squalor and congestion in industrial towns in this country. On this point, we may quote the view of Sir William Beveridge,[1] who says: "It does not seem to me to matter very much whether the industries are near the raw materials or not; because the raw materials can travel; what I object to is that in this country instead of moving goods we move human beings as strap-hangers in suburban trains, miles and miles and miles every day. No, by proper distribution of industries I mean distribution with reference to places where people can live and live happily. If, for instance, we were making Britain a new industrial country I would not allow any factory to be put up anywhere without a previous plan as to where the people were going to live who were to work there. That's a new principle that I'd like to see adopted." The question of dispersal has attained a further importance today on account of the emergence of the atom bomb and the strategic necessity of diffusing our industries in sparse regions. It may be added that some of the belligerent countries in World War II actually shifted their large plants to remote places to save them from destruction. The dispersal of industries assumes the existence of adequate transport facilities in the form of good roads and railway communications. This will help the employer in regard to economical marketing of his products. So far new industries are concerned, there should not be any difficulty, provided Government plan in advance and do not allow a haphazard growth. The problem of transplantation of old industrial units for their ultimate dispersal in different areas may present some difficulty, though the low price of land, labour and building materials in rural areas, as compared with prices in cities, may make the proposition a profitable one. In case some loss is incurred in the process, it should be possible for the Housing Boards to bear a part or the whole of it.

[1]Sir Willliam Beveridge's B. B. C.. talk on December 16, 1943.

CHAPTER XI

WELFARE ACTIVITIES.

I. *Scope of Welfare Work*

We now proceed to consider certain important measures and activities undertaken by the State, employers and associations of workers for the improvement of workers' standards of life and for the promotion of their economic and social wellbeing. Such activities are broadly termed Welfare Work, but a precise definition of the term "welfare work" is somewhat difficult.[1] After having considered the several definitions offered by writers on the subject, we feel that this question is somewhat subjective and that the definition largely depends upon the circumstances of each case. This, some would like to draw a distinction between "welfare work" and "social work", indicating that the former refers to work undertaken by the employer himself, while the latter comprises measures adopted by other agencies. As Mr. Arthur James Todd aptly remarks, "A series of sharply diverse opinions exists on the motives and merits of industrial welfare work."[2] For our part, we prefer to include under welfare activities anything done for the intellectual, physical, moral and economic betterment of the workers, whether by employers, by Government or by other agencies, over and above what is laid down by law or what is normally expected as part of the contractual benefits for which the workers may have bargained. Thus, under this definition, we may include housing, medical and educational facilities, nutrition (including provision of canteens), facilities for rest and recreation, co-operative societies, day nurseries and creches, provision of sanitary accommodation, holidays with pay, social insurance measures undertaken voluntarily by employers alone or jointly with workers, including sickness and maternity benefit schemes[3], Provident Funds, Gratuities and Pensions, etc, Some of these matters are already covered in other Chapters. In this chapter we propose to take a bird's-eye view of activities not already discussed elsewhere.

II. *Necessity of Welfare Work*

Having defined the scope of welfare activities, let us turn to the necessity of adding these to the contractual relationship between the employer and the workers. In the first place, there is no doubt as regards the beneficial effects of welfare measures such as educational facilities, sports, entertainments, etc., on the sentimental atmosphere in the factory and their contribution to the maintenance of industrial peace. When the worker feels that the employer and the State are interested in his day-to-day life and would like to make his lot happier in every possible way, his tendency to grouse and grumble will steadily disappear. Secondly, better housing, co-operative societies, canteens, sickness and maternity

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[1] Cf. *Report of the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee*, p. 264-5. Also Royal Commission (*Report*, p. 261), who observed: "It is a term which must necessarily be elastic, bearing a somewhat different interpretation in one country from another, according to the different social customs, the degree of industrialisation and the educational development of the worker."

[2] *Industry and Society*, p. 529, quoted *ibid.*

[3] No account of such schemes is given here. Reference may be made to Prof. Adarkar's *Report on Health Insurance* which contains an account of existing sickness benefit schemes in India at pp. 137—148.

benefits, provident funds, gratuities and pensions, and such other things are bound to create a feeling amongst the workers that they have a stake in the industry as much as anyone else, and the present situation under which labour turnover and absenteeism prevail and the workers are constanty trekking to their village homes in search of social security and recreation, will yield place to a new situation in which the working class becomes more stabilised and economically efficient.[1] Thirdly, the social advantage—even apart from the humanirian value—of such activities are considerable. Thus, the provision of canteens where cheap, clean and balanced food is available to workers must improve their physique; entertainments must reduce the incidence of vices; medical aid and maternity and child welfare must improve the health of workers and their families and bring down the rates of general, maternal and infant mortality; and educational facilities must increase their mental efficiency and economic productivity. For achieving the maximum results, however, welfare activities have to be undertaken in the right spirit, i.e., mainly with a view to making the lives of the workers happier and healthier. Thus, it has been stated by some trade unions—not wholly without reason —that employers often make use of welfare activities for undermining the influence of trade unions and to wean away the workers from them by discriminating against those who are members of unions. Such vindictive use of welfare activities must necessarily have unfortunate consequences in the long run.

The Indian industrial worker has often been condemned as lazy and inefficient, but, as pointed out by the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee, "It is axiomatic that in all pursuits a high standard of efficiency can be expected only from persons who are physically fit and free from mental worries, that is, only from persons who are properly trained, properly housed, properly fed and properly clothed."[2] In this connection, we fully endorse the view expressed by that Committee, that, even apart from the question of welfare activities (which, of course, are a direct solution of the problem), it is desirable to have an Institute of Indusrial Welfare Research, wherein the questions of fatigue, hygiene and unrest could be fully investigated, and the result utilised for advancing both industrial efficiency and human well-being.

III. *The Problem of Agency*

The next important problem in regard to welfare activities is of the *agency* which is likely to be the most suitable for such work. As will be clear from what follows, there are certain measures which easily fit into the factory set-up and, therefore, appropriately belong to the category of measures to be undertaken by the employer. These include, for example, canteens, creches and recreational facilities. Certain other measures, for example, educational and medical facilities, may be regarded as more appropriate subjects for State action. In regard to other measures, the precise sphere of employers may have to be demarcated, and the responsi-

[1]This is admitted by some employers as well. For example, the Bangalore Woolen, Cotton and Silk Mills, in their Memorandum to the Committee, remark: "Welfare activities carried on in the mills have contributed in making service in the mills attractive to labour and in creating a permanent, settled labour force. Attendance and efficiency are better."

[2]*Report*, p. 264.

bility shared by them and the State. Sometimes, the objection is raised that small employers cannot afford provision of costly amenities. In this connection, the following suggestion made by the All-India Trade Union Congress in their Memorandum to the Committee, deserves consideration: "Some of the essential items of welfare should be provided in the Act itself, and further regulations regarding details may be kept to be made by Rules. As there will be difficulties for enforcing some of the welfare activities such as canteens, creches, washing and bathing facilities, in the case of small factories, we suggest that some of these welfare activities should be made available in industrial areas for the general body of workers for whom no separate provision could be made by the employers, and these facilities should be under municipal or government control, but may be financed by the employers." The Labour Welfare centres started in recent years by some of the Provincial Governments, as will be seen below, are more or less on these lines, although they are not financed by employers. We think that the suggestion of the All-India Trade Union Congress will be largely met by a further extension of the system of Labour Welfare centres. In this connection, attention may be drawn to the Welfare Orders issued from time to time by the Minister of Labour in the United Kingdom.

IV. *Welfare Work by the Governments.*

The Government of India.—The Government of India till recently did not undertake any activities to promote the welfare of industrial labour. However, with the outbreak of war, the Government realised the need for the adoption of welfare measures as a means both to increase the workers' productive efficiency and to keep up their morale. In January 1944, the Government instituted a Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund to undertake activities conducive to the welfare of coal-miners. The C. M. W. Fund has since begun its work and has sanctioned considerable sums of money for carrying on extensive anti-malaria work, provision of entertainments and construction of up-to-date hospitals in Jharia and Raniganj. Further, special privileges and priorities are given to the employers in respect of transport and purchase of foodgrains, etc., in order to facilitate and encourage the establishment of industrial canteens and grain shops. In particular, the Central Government has taken a keen interest in the establishment of canteens in factories and has persuaded Provincial Governments to take active steps in this connection.

Provincial Governments' Work.—The various Provincial Governments till recently were content with enforcing the Central Acts relating to labour conditions, besides enacting a few of their own, and did not actively concern themselves with any welfare measures directly. This policy of non-intervention, however, was replaced by one of active intervention, though on a small scale in some Provinces, during the regime of the popular Provincial ministries in the years 1937-39. The Administrations which followed in the wake of these Provincial ministries also took steps to see that this work was not only continued but extended. During war time the Bombay, and U. P. Governments have directly embarked on a policy of providing welfare measures and Bengal and Sind have followed suit. However, the amounts spent and the activities undertaken as yet touch only a fringe of the problem and these will have to be generously expanded, if they are to prove useful to the mass of workers.

Bombay.—In 1939, the Bombay Government first organised model welfare centres. The expenditure sanctioned in that year was Rs. 1,20,000 but it has gone up to Rs. 2,50,000 during 1944-45. In all, there are now 27 centres classified under four classes—'A', 'B', 'C', and 'D'. At Bombay there are 3 'A' class, 9 'C' class and 4 'D' class centres, located in various parts of the city; at Ahmedabad, 1 'A' class and 4 'C' class; at Sholapur, there are 5 'C' class centres; at Hubli only 1 'C' class centre. No 'B' class centre has yet been opened. 'A' class centres have a full time nursery school for children; a women's section providing literacy, sewing and embroidery classes and suitable games; outdoor games and gymnasium with all facilities for men; and separate arrangements for water-taps and shower-baths for both men and women. Static as well as circulating libraries are attached to these centres; radio sets are provided; monthly cinema shows are arranged; and well-equipped dispensaries are attached. 'B' class centres are intended to be a replica of 'A' class centres but on a very much smaller scale. 'C' class centres provide indoor recreation and educational facilities, static and circulating libraries and dispensaries. 'D' class centres provide only outdoor recreation, such as games and sports. The centres have been very popular and the response from workers has been quite encouraging.

The United Provinces.—In 1937, a new Department of Labour was created with a Labour Commissioner and a Labour Officer, whose duties were mainly to keep in constant touch with the labour situation in Cawnpore and adopt conciliation measures when necessary. The Department of Labour has greatly extended its activities and has now evolved an ambitious welfare programme for workers. A Welfare Department under an experienced Superintendent has been created to provide healthy recreation and wholesome amenities of life to workers. Recently, a Lady Welfare Superintendent also was appointed to carry on welfare work among women and children. Three types of Welfare Centres—'A', 'B', and 'C'—at present numbering 28 in all have been opened. Thus, in Cawnpore, 3 'A' class, 4 'B' class and 5 'C' class centres have been opened; in Agra, 1 'A' class centre; in Lucknow, 3 'B' class centres, in Aligarh, Bareilly, Hathras, Firozabad and Saharanpur, 1 'B' class and 1 'C' class centre each; and in Allahabad and Mirzapur, 1 'B' class centre each. The total budget for the first year (1937) was only Rs. 10,000 but in 1945-46 Rs. 1,57,600 has been sanctioned. 'A' class centres provide medical aid, recreation, education, maternity and child welfare, sports and games and physical training. 'B' class centres provide all the above, though on a smaller scale. 'C' class centres are of the nature of workmen's clubs, with a reading room, a liberary, and indoor and outdoor games. Dispensaries are attached to both 'A' and 'B' class centres; and a trained midwife or *ayah* attends at each centre to wash, bathe and massage the workers' children, to entertain them with interesting games and to serve them hot milk—all free of charge. Moreover, industrial and instructional class are held for women and girls of the working class. Sewing, knitting, embroidery and other useful domestic arts are also taught. Debates and lectures are arranged; a number of night schools are run for mass literacy; and books and stationery are provided free of cost. Cinema shows are arranged for workers and their families, and dramatic clubs have been successfully organised at some centres. Occasionally

baby shows, music parties, and *mushahiras* are allso arranged. These Welfare Centres have been very popular and have introduced a healthy and cheerful note into the otherwise gloomy lives of the toiling masses in these towns, who have begun to take an increasingly active interest in these activities.

Bengal.—Till 1940, the Government of Bengal gave grants to private organisations for the benefit of labour but the total amounts were very small (Rs. 3,005 only in 1939-40). In 1940, however, besides these grants, Government made a start with ten Welfare Centres, and in 1944-45, there were in all 41 centres. The activities of the Centres consist of educational classes, indoor and outdoor games, gymnasiums and recreational facilities like radio, gramophone and cinema shows Considering that Bengal is industrially a very advanced Province with a large working-class population, the paltry sum of Rs. 34,720 spent on welfare measures in 1944-45 appears hardly adequate.

Sind.—The Sind Government have started two Welfare Centres in Karachi with provision for a gymnasium, indoor and outdoor games, a reading room and a library. The Centres, however, have not been a success for want of adequate funds and supervision.

Other Provincial Governments have done next to nothing in the direction of welfare amenities for workers and have mainly contented themselves with suggesting to employers the desirability of doing certain things to improve the living conditions of their employees. Under instructions from the Central Government, Provincial Governments have taken steps to encourage the starting of cost-price grain shops and co-operative societies in industrial establishments for supplying the neecssaries of life to workers at cost or concessional prices. They have also suggested to employers the desirability of starting industrial canteens, and for these purposes, as indicated earlier, special priorities have been given for purchase and transport of food grains.

Welfare Work by the States.—Coming to the Indian States, one finds that apart from a few exceptions, the State Administrations have done little by way of labour welfare work. The Mysore Government have opened two Recreation Centres in working-class areas in the Bangalore City, with provision for indoor games, a reading room, a liberary and weekly *bhajanas*. Between 300 and 400 labourers visit each centre daily. During war time, the Baroda Government have started a movement for establishing co-operative credit and thrift societies with a view to encouraging the saving habit amongst workers. So far, 20 societies, with a membership of 24,511 have been established. The scheme was at first voluntary but has recently been made compulsory. The deposited money is to be returned after the war. This is part of a programme of anti-inflationary measures, but is likey to continue during peace-time as well.

V. *Employers' Activities.*

Much progress has been made by employers in the provision of welfare activities since the Royal Commission reported. However, we are inclined to agree with Dr. B. R. Seth, who observes: "*The vast majority of industrialists in India still regard welfare work as a barren liability rather than a wise investment*".[1] On the whole, it may be stated, that employers who take a most indifferent and nonchalant attitude towards

[1]In an article on "Labour Welfare Work" in the *U. P. Labour Bulletin*, June 1942, p. 228.

welfare work and say that no rest shelters are provided as the whole premises belong to the workers themselves, no latrines are provided because workers prefer the open spaces, no canteens and sports are necessary because they are not likely to make use of such facilities and so on, constitute the majority. It is apparent that unless the precise responsibilities of employers in regard to welfare work are defined *by law*, such employers are not likely to fall in line with their more enlightened and far-sighted confreres. Excellent work, however, has been done by some of the larger establishments, and a brief account—mainly illustrative and not exhaustive, for reasons of space—may be given here.

The Tata Iron and Steel Co. provide an up-to-date and well-equipped hospital with 168 beds and a qualified medical staff, a network of primary and secondary schools, gymnasiums, clubs with facilities for indoor and outdoor games, canteens, creches, co-operative stores, etc. The Delhi Cloth and General Mills, have constituted an Employees' Benefit Fund to finance welfare measures, which include Gratuities, Pensions, Provident Fund, Sickness Insurance, educational facilities for workers' children, night schools for adults, a vocational school, libraries and reading rooms, hospitals, gymnasiums, creches, sports clubs, swimming pools, dramatic clubs, theatres, facilities for excursion, canteens, messes and grainshops. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills of Madras have an excellent system of welfare work, including schools, mess rooms, a co-operative society, workmen's stores, an ambulance corps, atheletic associations, etc. The British India Corporation of Cawnpore provide schools for boys and girls, sports, dispensaries, maternity and child welfare centres, club-rooms, a hospital, a Widows' Home etc. The Begg Sutherland group of mills, Cawnpore, has provided schools for adults and children, playgrounds, indoor and outdoor games, radio and well-equipped creches. The J. K. Industries of Cawnpore have created a Trust with Rs. 3,00,000 for providing several schools, a swimming pool and other amenities for their workmen. The Empress Mills of Nagpur have provided 4 well-equipped dispensaries, a central primary school, Kindergarten classes, a co-operative society, a sickness benefit fund, a pensions scheme, etc. The Madura Mills provide a well-equipped dispensary, a co-operative store, a thrift society, a workers' saving fund, a child welfare centre and creches, and a tea canteen. Besides, they have contributed a sum of Rs. 25,000 for operating an association called "The Madura Labour Union Welfare Association", to which they are also paying a monthly contribution of Rs. 1,000. The Association conducts schools for adults and children, indoor and outdoor games, a reading room and a library. The Calico Mills of Ahmedabad have provided an excellent hospital with 40 beds in the general and 20 in the special maternity wards. Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co., of Bombay have canteen facilities, a co-operative society and a number of schools for workers. The four mining companies of the Kolar Gold Field have constituted a Central Welfare Committee to co-ordinate all welfare work, which includes the provision of a large hospital and five maternity homes, schools, sports clubs, cinema shows, dramatic performances, etc. The Dalmia Cement Company of Dalmianagar in Bihar, have provided a well-equipped hospital with female and maternity wards, a high school, a reading room and a library and facilities for indoor and outdoor games. In Class I railways, again, medical facilities are provided at important centres with well-equipped hospitals.

There are also educational facilities to the children of the employees mostly free of charge. Staff Benefit Funds have also been created by certain railway companies which give monetary help to the children and widows of the deceased employees. On plantations, likewise, attention has been devoted to welfare activities. Planters have maintained dispensaries and hospitals and they were probably the first to give maternity benefits. Anti-malarial measures costing large sums of money have been adopted especially in Assam. As regards employers in the States, mention may be made of the Tata Oil Company at Tatapuram near Ernaculam in the Cochin State, in which numerous welfare measures have been introduced, including a co-operative society, medical aid, gymnasium facilities and sports, a canteen, a literacy class and a *kala-samiti* to encourage the histroinic art and music. The list can be extended but this is enough to give an idea of the work being done by employers.

VI.—*Trade Unions' Work*

Broadly, speaking, the workers' associations, with the exception of the Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association, the Railwaymen's Unions, the Mazdoor Sabha of Cawnpore and some others, have not done much by way of welfare activities. Lack of funds has been mainly responsible for this. The Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association spends 60 to 70 per cent of its income (i.e., about Rs. 40,000) on welfare activities, which comprise day and night schools, a residential boarding house for working-class girls, study homes for boys, reading rooms and libraries, physical culture centres, etc. For this purpose. a special staff of about 25 Inspectors is appointed, "who come into touch with workers every day, and help them to solve their difficulties in the residential areas and attend to the manifold aspects of the workers' life with a view to develop their internal strength and raise their status."[1] Some of the Railwaymen's Unions have organised co-operative societies, and various kinds of funds for the provision of specific benefits such as legal defence, death and retirement benefits, unemployment and sickness benefits and life insurance. In the U.P., the Indian Federation of Labour have organised about 48 centres where various kinds of welfare activities are in progress. They have also established workers' clubs with libraries and reading rooms, indoor and outdoor games and co-operative stores.[2] Finally, the Mazdoor Sabha of Cawnpore maintains a reading room, a library and also a dispensary for workers. Apart from this, there are a few other unions carrying on stray activities for promotion of the workers' well-being. However, the biggest limitation in the case of trade unions is, of course, lack of funds and one cannot expect such bodies to achieve really big results. There is no doubt, however, that if unions organised welfare activities, they will be strengthening their position considerably. In the field of co-operation, whether this is for the purpose of credit or consumption, the efforts of unions are likely to be valuable.

VII—*Special Aspects of Welfare*

Having surveyed the field of welfare activities of the Central, Provincial and State Governments, Employers and Trade Unions, we may now consider certain important aspects of labour welfare in a more specific manner. These may be considered under the following heads:

[1] From the *Memorandum* of the A.T.L. Association.

[2] *The Indian Textile Journal*, May 1944, p. 308.

(i) Canteens; (ii) Creches; (iii) Entertainments; (iv) Medical Aid; (v) Washing and Bathing Facilities; (vi) Provident Fund, Gratuities and Pensions; (vii) Educational Facilities; and (viii) Other facilities.

i. *Canteens.*

The works canteen is being increasingly recognised all over the world as an essential part of an industrial establishment, providing undeniable benefits from the point of view of health, efficiency and well-being. To introduce an element of nutritional balance into the otherwise deficient and unbalanced dietary of the workers, to provide cheap and clean food and an opportunity to relax in comfort near the place of work, to save time and trouble to workers on account of exhausting journeys to and from work after long hours in the factory, and (during war time at any rate) to enable them to surmount the difficulties experienced in obtaining meals or foodstuffs—these are some of the objects of an industrial canteen. In European and American countries canteens are becoming immensely popular and are looked upon as so many laboratories carrying on experiments in nutrition and dietics and are making rapid progress as instruments of industrial welfare. In the United Kingdom, the Factories Act, 1937, requires the employer to provide mess-room accommodation, while under a recent order, "efficient and suitable canteens where hot meals can be purchased may be ordered by the Factories Inspector to be provided in a munitions or other factory employed on Government work, and employing more than 250 workers; in building and engineering operations, in constructing munitions factories, aerodromes, defence work, etc., and in any docks".[1] In India, it is a different story altogether. Firstly, in a majority of mills and factories, there are no canteens at all. Nor are they required under the Factories Act or any other law. The Factories Act (under Section 33) merely empowers Provincial Governments to make rules "requiring that in any specified factory, wherein more than 150 workers are ordinarily employed, an adequate shelter shall be provided for the use of workers during periods of rest," and to prescribe standards for such shelters. We have had opportunities of seeing some of these shelters and feel that barring a few exceptions they can hardly be regarded as places suitable for relaxation during rest intervals.

Canteens, tea-stalls, refreshment rooms, etc. are, therefore, an *ex gratia* affair and they can hardly conform to any standards or principles, for the simple reason that no such standards or principles have been laid down anywhere. In most places, where they exist, they are little more than private contractors' tea-stalls, supplying tea and sweets. Where foodstuffs are supplied, they are neither cheap nor good in quality, while the environments are anything but clean, sanitary or attractive. "The maximum of profit" is the only principle of the contractor, who is there by virtue of being the highest bidder for the contract. As pointed out by the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee (*Report*, p. 303) high rents are charged to these contractors by factory owners for the use of premises. All this results in high prices being charged to workers or bad food being provided at low prices. No wonder then that workers prefer to bring their own snack with them for mid-day consumption. We think the following comments made by Dr. Aykroyd in respect of a typical

[1] *Canteens in Industry*, (published by the Industrial Welfare Society of the U.K.).

canteen in a Bombay mill (which provided tea and snacks) hold good of most such places:—

"In my opinon, a canteen organised on the above lines, while it is a praiseworthy effort on the part of the management and appreciated by the workers, does not do much to improve the diet of the average worker. In general the snacks which are for sale do not supply in abundance the elements in which the worker's diet tends to be deficient. The midday meal, while it is wholesome and liberal in quantity, is too expensive in relation to the current level of wages and commitments, to be taken advantage of by the poorer workers who are likely to be in most need of a good meal.

"I would not regard the extension of canteens run on the above lines as being likely to prove effective in raising the standard of nutrition of the workers. In order to produce this effect canteens must sell at very low cost food of high nutritive value and in particular foods which supply the elements (vitamins, etc.) which the worker most requires.

"With regard to the particular 'snacks' mentioned above, a piece of white bread or a portion of sweetmeats supply calories, but they are not rich in certain of the more important constituents of food. A cup of tea or coffee is essentially water plus a little stimulant. On the other hand, whole meal bread, cheap fruit, butter-milk, and many other foods, which could be mentioned are of higher nutritive value. Canteens could be organised so that foods which are specially good from the standpoint of nutrition are offered for sale, and the workers encouraged to buy them.

"In respect of midday meals, the most satisfactory procedure would be to sell a very cheap meal, which is fairly rich in essential food factors. Unless the price is equal to, or below, the usual price of a meal consumed in the workers, own homes, there will be little incentive for them to spend money on meals in the canteen. Hence the meal provided should be based on cheap foods of relatively high nutritive value, such as whole cereals, pulses, certain classes of vegetables, etc.. Some knowledge of nutrition is necessary in devising satisfactory feeding at minimum cost and due regard must be course be paid to the dietary habits of the workers.

"A comprehensive scheme for the development of canteens on sound lines in Bombay, under the guidance of nutrition workers, is worth careful consideration. A trained worker, in consultation with the various managements and after full consideration of local conditions and requirements, could draw up a suitable scheme at the outset, and superintend its working and development in practice. In certain countries (e.g., U.S.A.), canteens have been organised and run by expert 'dieticians'; this development has been characteristic of factories, etc.,; conducted on the best modern lines. It would be fitting for Bombay to give a lead to the rest of India in this matter.

"The development of canteens along the above lines would probably result in the genuine improvement of the nutrition and health of the workers."[1]

That the workers are not at all averse to making use of good canteens is proved by the experience of certain employers who run them not for profit-making but for provision of wholesome food at reasonable prices. The canteen at the Tata Iron and Steel Co's. works at Jamshedpur is an example. "The canteen is housed in two fine buildings well-fitted with marble-top tables, electric lights and fans; these are visited thrice every day by 13,000 workers for tea, refreshments and meals; meals varying with communal tastes are served to different communities; separate dining arrangements have been made for women workers. Until recently prices of cooked food served at the canteen were 75% below the market price. At present in spite of the rise in prices of commodities, charges here are still 30 to 50% lower than the bazaar prices. Particular care has been taken to keep down the price of a simple meal consisting of rice, *dal*, curry and *chapattis;* generally the price is five pice only. The canteen is run entirely on a nonprofit basis. Buildings and capital expenditure are provided by the Company at a fair economic rent".[2] The Delhi Cloth Mills Trust runs a canteen for workers in which tea, milk, lemon squash and other light refreshment are sold at moderate prices. The Sigcol's canteen at Calcutta has been immensely popular, the reason being that good and healthy food is provided during the lunch interval in a clean place and *free of cost.* Likewise, the canteen of Lever Brothers (India) in Bombay has been popular and appropriate to the needs of the worker. The Tea Marketing Expansion Board has been encouraging and giving all possible help and expert assistance to the starting and running of canteens in industrial concerns. Perhaps a greater use of these facilities could be made by employers.

Since the outbreak of the war, the Government of India instructed all Provincial Governments to encourage and persuade employers to start regular canteens serving tiffin as well as hot meals. The results actually obtained have not, however, been up to the mark. In this connection, the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bihar, observes in his memorandum to the Committee: "The employers in general do not favour the idea and are not prepared to open cooked-food canteens voluntarily. No success can be achieved unless legal responsibility is placed on the employers." We fully endorse this view and hope that Government will take early steps to impose such a legal responsibility on employers to open canteens on a non-profit basis, subject to supervision by Inspectors, as in other countries. Apart from advising the Provincial Governments to encourage the canteen movement, the Government of India have also sanctioned rent-free accommodation and free furniture and cooking utensils in canteens run by them, or by workers, or jointly by both, and under certain conditions even in canteens run by contractors in their concerns. Supply of rationed foodstuffs to canteens has also now been sanctioned..[3]

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[1] In Appendix IX to the *Report* of the Bombay T.L.E. Committee.

[2] *Indian Textile Journal, August* 1943, p. 346.

[3] *Summary of Proceedings of the Sixth Labour Conference*, p. 29.

The progress of the canteen movement, however, has been extremely slow. Thus, so far there are only 37 canteens (of various descriptions and grades)in the United Provinces; 130 in Bombay; 70 in Madras; and 133 in Bengal. The usual objections raised by employers against starting canteens are that the dietetic habits of the workers vary widely, that workers of different communities are not prepared to mess together, that there is no "canteen habit," that workers generally prefer to get their meals from home as foodstuffs are not available, etc. But every one of these objections has been proved to be untenable wherever a canteen has been run on sound lines after proper planning. On the whole, it appears to us that progress in regard to canteens is bound to be slow and difficult unless they are made obligatory at least in the case of the larger factories, and what applies to factories also applies *mutatis mutandis* to other industrial establishments, such as mines, transport services etc.

ii. *Creches*

The legal position in regard to provision of *creches* is that the Government of India has under the Factories Act (Section 33) empowered the Provincial Governments to make rules "requiring the reservation of a suitable room for the use of children under the age of six years belonging to women workers in factories employing 50 or more such women workers, and describing the standards for such rooms and the nature of supervision to be exercised for the children". Most of the Provinces, including, Bombay, C.P. and Berar, U.P., Bengal and Madras, have availed themselves of this rule-making power. On the whole, however, the employers have been rather slow in observing the requirements in regard to provision of *creches* even in Provinces where the law requires it. Things were bad enough in former years when there was no provision of *creches,* as women used to keep their children with them while working near the machines or, worse still, drug them with opium and leave them at home. Mills which are not legally obliged to establish *creches* do not have them at all. Even those employing more than 100 women workers in a large number of cases evade the provision of the law and put forward some lame excuse or other in justification, such as, e.g., that the women in the factory are unmarried and so require no *creches;* or that only women who have passed the child-bearing age are employed; or that they are widows, etc. Even where the rules are observed, the tendency is to conform only to the letter of the law and to break the spirit of it. Thus, some dark room in a corner away from the work-place may be set apart with no playthings to attract the children and nobody to look after them. The Royal Commission (Report, p. 65) stated that though creches were not uncommon in factories employing women, and some of these they saw were admirably staffed and equipped, "others, if better than nothing, still left much to be desired: yet others were both dirty and inadequately furnished". This state of affairs still continues in a large measure. Generally speaking, the *creche* is one of the neglected corners of the factory and if an *ayah* or nurse is in attendance, she seldom pays sufficient attention to the requirements of the children left there. The emoluments of nurses in charge are usually low. Supervision even in good *creches* leaves much to be desired. For example, at one place we were told that women workers doped their babies in *creches* with the connivance of the nurse in charge. The atmosphere is seldom very clean, and standards of sanitation seldom

very high. If cradles are provided, there are not enough of them, with the result that children are allowed to lie on the floor, generally in dirty clothes and crying for want of attendance. On occasions of visits of officers or Committees, there is a considerable amount of window-dressing, and even then conditions do not appear to be very satisfactory. Of course, there are some enlightened employers who have established *creches* which are well-equipped and adequately staffed. For example, child welfare and maternity wards are attached to the hospital provided by the Tatas. The Gokak mills in the Bombay Province and the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills at Madras have made excellent arrangements for *creches* and also child and maternity welfare. Parry and Co., at their Nellikuppam Sugar Factory have established a child welfare centre with a trained nurse, *Ayahs* and health visitors. Women in the locality are given pre-natal and post-natal treatment and on three days in a week workers' children are given bath, clean dress and milk, all free of cost. The weights of the children are recorded and steps are taken to improve their health. Likewise the Begg Sutherland Group of mills provides *creches* under the supervision of trained midwives. The *creches* are equipped with hanging cradles and cots, mattresses, sheets, blankets and all other necessary equipment. The children are kept clean, being washed and clothed in fresh garments everyday. Toys, biscuits and nourishing food are also provided by the management. In the Madura Mills, a *creche* is being maintained in a spacious building, with a kitchen attached to it, from which children are supplied free meals, milk, fruit etc. These are merely illustrations of the facilities provided by enlightened employers, but, generally speaking, the attitude of employers is not very favourable to the provision of *creches*. We feel that unless the law regarding *creches* is made more universal than at present and also more rigorously enforced, the position is not likely to improve. In this connection, mention may be made of the fact that the Governments of Bombay and Madras have appointed a Lady Inspector of Factories to visit *creches* and bring them up to a minimum standard of cleanliness and comfort. We also feel that, apart from factories, other industrial establishments, particularly mines and unregulated factories, should be brought under the scope of such law. At present, the position in mines and unregulated factories appears to be most deplorable.

iii. *Entertainments.*

The value and importance of entertainments as a means to relieve the monotony and drugery of working long hours in the factory or mine and to introduce an element of joy and relief as well as to impart instruction and education to the ignorant workers cannot be overestimated. The average industrial worker works in an atmosphere of dust, noise and heat, and lives in terrible overcrowded and insanitary dwellings which are generally no better than dark dungeons, with the consequence that many workers fall prey to vice. No measures to raise the standard of life of workers can succeed unless and until they are weaned away from vice and diversions are provided which can occupy their spare time in a healthy atmosphere. The provision of entertainment such as cinema shows, radio sets, games, etc., must effectively fulfil this object and go a long way in reducing the evils of drink and gambling, and particularly prostitution, which prevails in the labour areas owing to the glaring numerical disparity of sexes.

Little attention has been given to this matter either by the State or by employers, though there have been a few honourable exceptions, such as those mentioned already under the heading, "Employers' Activities." Apart from these laudable efforts on the part of some employers, as stated earlier, the Labour Welfare centres organised by the Governments of Bombay and U.P. provide radio and gramophone entertainment, games and sports, occasional musical parties and culture show and also cinema shows, usually twice a month. Wherever entertainments have been provided, they have become immensely popular with large numbers of workers and their families. In some cases, no doubt, dissatisfaction has been voiced by employers that the clubs provided have not been made use of by workers; but a careful study will reveal that this has mostly been the case where modern games like tennis, ping-pong, billiards and such others only are provided; also where the club is common to both officers and workers. On the whole, we are inclined to think that entertainments can only be regarded as voluntary activity on the part of the employers and no legal effect can be given to it. It is for the employers to realise that ordinary entertainments, such as sports, excursions, etc., cost really little, while the psychological and moral gain both to themselves and to the workers is immense, and the effect of this on efficiency must be far greater than the small cost involved in providing entertainments. Apart from this, the contribution made to industrial peace by music, dramatic entertainments, *bhajans*, *mushairas*, and such other things must be incalculable.

iv. *Medical Facilities*

With regard to the provision of medical facilities, the most important question of principle involved is the extent to which employers can be made responsible for financing medical facilities. It is no doubt true that employers have a duty towards the workers in mitigating their physical suffering in so far as this is directly due to industrial employment. On the other hand, society as a whole must share the responsibility for industrial employment with all its attendant evils and to that extent must be regarded as liable to bear a part of the cost of medical facilities specially meant for hazardous or physically uncomfortable employment. In India, the provision of hospitals and dispensaries has been undertaken mainly by the State, including municipalities and local boards, but a large number of industrial concerns have their own medical institutions. Such medical institutions provided by employers, however, must be regarded as *ex gratia*, although one can readily agree with the view expressed by the Royal Commission (*Report*, p. 258) that "those employers who have taken a more humanitarian view have found that their action has had valuable effects on the efficiency of their establishments" and that "many of the medical organisations in industrial compounds are worthy of great praise and are clearly responsible for a considerable increase in the health and happiness of the workers and their families." Generally, speaking, however, the medical organisation of the country as a whole is extremely inadequate and correspondingly the special medical facilities provided by employers are also insufficient from both the quantitative and qualitative standards. It is to be hoped that as a result of the recommendations of the Health Survey and Development Committee, the medical organisation for the entire population including industrial workers will be made

more comprehensive and also more adequate than it is at present. However, it may as well be recognised that the specially hazardous nature of industrial employment requires that the State should give somewhat preferential treatment to industrial and urban areas where health conditions are less satisfactory than in rural areas owing to congestion and insanitary environments. At the same time, as admitted, earlier, it is the responsibility of the employer partly, and perhaps even of the worker, to help in the provision of medical facilities. Accordingly, we are inclined to the view that provision of medical facilities though primarily the responsibility of the State should also be supported by employers and workers themselves. The Unified Scheme of Social Insurance, providing for factory workers medical care in respect of the three contingencies of sickness, employment, injury and childbirth, which is envisaged by the Labour Department of the Government of India is a step in the right direction.

At the same time, we feel that there is a residue of medical amenities which can be rightly regarded as the sole responsibility of the employer. In particular, the provision of First Aid in the event of sudden sickness or an accident is undoubtedly the responsibility of the employer. Likewise, provision of ambulance, maintenance of standards of industrial hygiene etc., may also be regarded as primarily matters to be dealt with by employers. In western countries, the Factory Doctor has become an indispensable feature of large-scale enterprise. The Factory Doctor is rightly regarded as the connecting link between the factory and the public hospital. Unfortunately in India, the law imposes upon the employer only the provision of first-aid facilities. Under the Factories Act (Section 32), Provincial Governments are empowered to make rules "requiring the managers of factories to maintain stores of first-aid appliances and provide for their proper custody." But practical investigation conducted by the Committee, which is also corroborated by the experience of the Factory Inspection staff, reveals that in a number of cases the contents of these first-aid boxes are not renewed even after they are used up. Secondly, there is no certainty that the first-aid boxes are ever used at all by the employers in the event of accident or sudden sickness. In most places, there is no one trained in first-aid, with the result that when an accident occurs, no relief can be administered on the spot, and the worker is just removed to some public dispensary or hospital nearby. We may, however, mentioned that a very large proportion of employees in the Madras Port Trust have received such training. The absence of any obligation of the employers to maintain a person trained in first-aid has thus practically nullified this provision of the law. In view, of this, we strongly feel that the precise legal responsibilities of the employer in regard to provision of medical facilities within or near the factory should be clearly demarcated and prescribed under the law, the rest being left to be dealt with by either hospitals and dispensaries set up for the general public or for industrial workers under a scheme of social insurance.

It may be useful here to give a rough picture of the type of medical facilities actually provided by employers. These are, of course, of various types and grades ranging from mere first aid to hospitals of first-class type. Thus, many employers have dispensaries, but there are not enough drugs and appliances, nor a qualified full-time medical man to administer them. Some factories employ a part-time doctor who visits the factory premises once or twice a fortnight, or more often, just for an hour or so,

and the workers are required to consult him while he is available. Sometimes factories arrange to send their workers to private practitioners under an agreement. Sometimes the doctors employed for looking after workers are more busy attending upon the employers and officials, as well as their families, than upon the workers. However, at the other end, we have some cases of really first-rate medical facilities. Thus, for example, the Tata Iron and Steel Co., maintain a large well-equipped hospital with 168 beds, 29 medical officers, 38 nurses, and other staff; and also 6 out-door dispensaries. Treatment is free to employees of the Company but nominal fees are charged to non-employees. The Delhi Cloth Mills maintain a hospital which is fully equipped with X-ray apparatus and other modern appliances, and which gives free medical aid to both mill workers and their families and free food to indoor patients. The hospital at the Kolar Gold Field is a model of its kind, but while hospital treatment is free to European and Anglo-Indian staff and their families, in the case of Indian workers, families are excluded, moreover, the wards for the latter are separate from those for the former and also the equipment considerably inferior. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills of Madras and the three important groups of employers of Cawnpore (viz., Begg Sutherland, British India Corporation, and J. K. Industries), the Assam Oil Co., at Digboi and many other employers have also provided adequate medical facilities which for want of space cannot be described here. In all Class I railways in British India there are medical departments under the control of chief medical and health officers with divisional medical officers assisted by a number of assistants. At most of the branches all facilities are provided free of charge for indoor and outdoor patients including the dependants of the employees. A diet charge is realised if the income of the indoor patient is above a certain specified minimum. However, complaints from the workers showed that there was hardly any provision for T.B. patients and that the number of lady doctors was very inadequate. In the Assam tea gardens, medical aid is provided by a network of dispensaries run by assistant medical officers. Hospital accommodation, however, is exceedingly inadequate and uninviting. Indoor patients are fed free of cost but out-patients are given only half *hazira* and that too by a few gardens if there is nobody to support them. Arrangements for medical aid in South Indian tea gardens vary from the provision of a few common drugs dispensed by clerks to hospitalisation and specialist attention. An attractive feature of the medical facilities provided in these plantations is the system of Central or Group hospitals catering for groups of estates. The Kannan Devan Hills Produce Company has an efficient system of medical aid. The Company runs a general hospital with well-equipped X-ray, opthalmic and dental departments. The C.P. manganese ore Co. Ltd., maintains dispensaries at most of its mines. Maternity treatment including post-natal treatment is also provided at some of the bigger mines. As mentioned elsewhere, the Assam tea planters have done a valuable service to the planting population by adopting anti-malarial measures with a great degree of success.

The position in regard to the provision of maternity and child welfare centres is much less satisfactory than that of ordinary medical facilities. The Royal Commission recommended that women should be appointed to public health staffs, particularly in the more industrialised

provinces, and that every hospital of any size should have a woman doctor on its staff who should be in charge of all work connected with the health and welfare of women and children. Very few Provincial Governments and employers have implelmented this recommendation. The Madras Government have appointed a lady as an Assistant Director of Health. The Tata Iron and Steel Co., Parry & Co. of Madras (at their Nellikuppam Sugar Factroy), the Empress Mills of Nagpur and some others have organised systems of maternity and child welfare. Only in some cases, Lady Doctors who are employed to supervise and guide this work, nurses and *dais* attend to pre-natal and post-natal cases, at the dispensary as well as at the homes of workers; children are treated and in some cases they are given a bath, and milk free of cost. In some cases, their weight are regularly recorded and proper steps taken to remedy deficiencies. In the coal mines, the Jharia and Asansol Mines Boards of Health have in recent years done very valuable work in the field of maternity and child welfare, by providing welfare centres for this work in selected areas in the Bihar and Bengal coalfields.

v. *Washing and Bathing Facilities.*

The Factories Act requires that "in every factory in which any process involving contact by the workers with any injurious or obnoxious substances is carried on, a sufficient supply of water suitable for washing shall be provided for the use of workers, at suitable places and with facilities for its use." Almost all the factories provide water for washing but not soap, soda and towels which are also necessary. In many cases the number of taps and basins is inadequate. Only in a few cases are the facilities for washing completely satisfactory. As for bathing facilities, very few employers provide these inside factory premises. "The workers who live in crowded areas have inadequate facilities for washing at their homes and bathing facilities would add to their comfort, health and efficiency."[1] Even in mines where bathing facilities are absolutely necessary, pithead baths are provided by very few mine-owners. "Construction of pithead baths by the Tata Iron and Steel Co., at their Digwadhi Colliery is pioneer work in the Jharia coalfield. At these baths 52 workers can have shower bath at one time. There are separate sections for men and women."[2]

vi. *Provident Fund, Gratuities and Pensions*

The whole problem of provision against old age or death of bread-winners legitimately falls within the sphere of Social Security and it is a matter for consideration whether either the initiation or management of schemes of Provindent Fund, Gratuities and Pensions should be left to employers themselves. Of course, so long as there are no schemes of social security introduced in a particular industry or area, the existing private schemes of provident fund, etc., should be allowed to continue under the management of employers. The existing schemes in this connection do not appear to be very liberal, and especially in regard to the employers' contribution to provident funds of workers the restrictions on withdrawal of employers' contribution seem to be somewhat unsatisfactory. If provision against old age or death of bread-winner is intended to stablise the industrial worker in employment, the employers' contribution, which is

[1] *Report of Royal Commission on Labour*, p. 65.

[2] *Indian Labour Gazette*, October 1944, p. 105.

really in consideration for permanent service by the worker, should as far as possible be made available to him on early retirement, etc. The absence of social security measures like provident funds, gratuities and pensions in most concerns has largely contributed to the migratory character of Indian labour, and is one of the most important causes of the large labour turnover in factories. Though some of the larger employers have instituted tolerably good schemes, the number of such employers is very small. During the last few years, however, some progress has been achieved in this direction. Generally speaking, provident funds are most common, gratuities are given only in some cases and pensions are rather rare. Only some of the Provident Funds are registered, while most are not. As regards eligibility, there are very wide variations; in some cases, the clerical and office staff only are covered; in others only permanent workers (and the definition of permanency itself varies from concern to concern), and in others still, all employees except casual labour are covered. Some employers impose income qualifications and here also there are numerous variations. Broadly speaking, the range of income limits lies between Rs. 30 and Rs. 150 or so per month. The amount of total contribution also varies widely, generally ranging between 5 per cent and 12½ per cent with equal monthly contributions from the employer and the worker. In almost all cases, however, the worker must have served for at least 15 years (or more in some cases) and to the entire satisfaction of the employer, before he is eligible to receive the employer's contribution to the Provident Fund; and it must be remembered that it is the employer himself who decides whether the worker has been of good behaviour or not. The funds are generally deposited in Government securities. In the case of unregistered funds, the amout outstanding to the worker's credit is attachable, but not so in the case of registered funds. We are of the opinion that all Provident Funds, wherever they exist, should be compulsorily registered and treated as trusts.

A few employers have instituted Gratuity and Pension Schemes. The amount of gratuity generally amounts to half a month's wages for every complete year of service put in. In almost all the cases gratuity is payable only to deserving workers of proved good behaviour,—the sole judge of the deservedness being the employer himself. Hence there is always scope for discrimination, and the trade unions bitterly complain that their members are discriminated against. The rate of the gratuity is progressively reduced if the period of service is less than 20 years. Pension schemes are operated by a very few concerns. The grant of pensions is entirely at the discretion of the employer and the amount is generally small.

vii. *Educational Facilities*

Like the problem of medical facilities, that of educational facilities also raises a question of principle, viz., to what extent can the employer be held legally or morally responsible for the education of his workers; and if he is to be held so responsible, for what types of education? Broadly speaking, it is a proposition which will be readily acceptable that education as a whole, should be a responsibility of the State. In this context, the Royal Commission (*Report*, p. 27) observe as follows: "In India nearly the whole of industrial labour is illiterate, a state of affairs which

is unknown in any other country of industrial importance. It is impossible to overestimate the consequence of this disability which are obvious in wages, in health, in productivity, in organisation and in several other directions." They, therefore, recommend (*Report*, p. 494) that "education of the industrial worker should receive special attention and that employers should try to develop the education of their worker's children in their factory schools and that local bodies and employers should co-operate in creating special facilities for the education of workers' children." We are not sure, however, that provision of educational facilities could be imposed upon employers as a matter of policy. As in the case of medical facilities, if any employers actually do provide such facilities, they must be considered as merely *gratis*. From this point of view, it is interesting to known that the educaional slheme of the Central Advisory Board of Education (popularly known as the Sergent Scheme) envisages the financing of a system of national education by the Central and Provincial Governments, partly supported by religious trusts and partly one or two other sources.[1]

✓It is one thing, however, to say that employers must finance the education of their workers or worker's children, and quite another to say that if they interested themselves in certain types of educational activities with reference to their workers or their children, they would find such activities ultimately proving beneficial to themselves. For instance, adult education or education through the medium of radio, or cinematograph, or lectures on matters of interest to labour, and also specialised instruction in processes of production to skilled workers under agreements can be of great use to employers themselves, in so far as such education improves the mental efficiency and skill of the workers.

Several enlightened employers have provided good educational facilities, from motives partly of self-interest and partly of charity. For example, the Tata Iron and Steel Co. have established a network of schools, including two high schools, 8 middle schools, 19 primary schools and 10 night schools. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills run primary schools, a nursery school and adult education classes. Most of the railways provide adequate educational facilities and run a number of schools for their workers' children. In plantations, likewise, primary schools are run by many enlightened employers at their own cost. The Assam Oil Co., at Digboi, have also provided excellent facilities for educaion of workers and their children. The C.P. Manganese Ore Co., Ltd., have established a network of schools with the help of contractors at their mines, where education is given free.

Facilities for adult education are almost nil. Most of the employers have not done anything and some who tried had to give it up in despair as the workers did not take any interest. But some trade unions have been doing valuable work in this regard. For instance, the Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association and some other trade unions conduct night classes for adults and the attendance of the workers has been quite satisfactory. The Delhi Cloth and General Mills have devised a novel system

[1]In particular, see the *Report of the Central Advisory Board of Education on Post-war Development of Education in India*, p. 73.

for encouraging adult education. "Since January, 1944 all new illiterate workers are required to join the adult classes under the terms of their contract of employment. Under the rules of the company, no illiterate worker below 40 years is entitled to become permanent until he has passed the literacy test. As a result of this adult education compaign, the percentage of literacy among workers by July 1943 had risen to 70[1]. Some of the Government Labour Welfare Centres in Bombay, U.P., and Bengal also conduct night classes for adults.

As regards provision of facilities for industrial and vocational training little has been done by employers. The Government Labour Welfare Centres conduct classes in sewing, knitting, embroidery work, etc., for working-class women and girls. The Labour Welfare Department of the Government of Bombay runs an industrial training workshop at Ahmedabad where workers are given vocational training which would help them in periods of unemployment. Training in tailoring, carpentry, smithery, moulding, fitting, turning and such other trades is given in the workshop. The Government of U.P. runs a textile institute and a Leather Working School at Cawnpore. Both these impart instructionn to workers and mistries. Some other Provincial Governments, like Madras, also run a few trade schools where apprentices are trained. The Railways have their own vocational schools where workshop assistants, permanent way, control, signal and yard apprentices are trained. The Tata Iron and Steel Co. run a technical institute for higher technical education for skilled workers. There are a number of other public and private institutions providing training facilities in different parts of the country.

viii. *Other Facilities*

Other facilities include cost-price grain-shops run by the managements or on a co-operative basis. During war time, the workers were faced with a menacing scarcity of foodstuffs and high prices of all necessaries of life. The Government, realising that in the interests of war production, the morale and the efficiency of workers as a whole had to be kept up, encouraged employers to start grain-shops storing all the necessaries of life required by workers and selling these at cost or concession prices. Special provisions were made to facilitate purchase and transport of grains, etc., by industrial concerns and employers; and many employers took advantage of this concession and established grain-shops. In many cases they advanced large sums of money required for bulk purchase of foodstuffs. Some employers met all the establishment and overhead charges. The articles generally supplied have been the rationed articles, and some other things like *dal*, vegetable ghee, oil, soap, etc. Mention may also be made here of miscellaneous facilities provided by the important railways, including free passes and monetary help to widows and children of deceased employees.

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[1] *Work and Welfare in Delhi Cloth and General Mills*, p. 12.

CHAPTER XII.

CONCLUSIONS.

We now propose to state very briefly the main facts and conclusions as they have emerged from our surveys of labour conditions in various industries, and to bring them together so as to enable the reader to get a bird's-eye view of the conditions of labour and also to judge for himself the progress so far achieved and the leeway which still remains to be made. In doing so, we do not propose to give a bald summary of our findings, for this would prevent us from putting the subject in its proper perspective. The curious reader will no doubt refer to our *Ad hoc* Survey Reports and also to the previous Chapters in this Report for detailed information.

I. WAR AND INDIAN LABOUR.

The impact of World War II on labour in India has been so pronounced that we may here proceed to discuss the manner in which it has influenced labour conditions and policy. The repercussions of war have been many and varied; involuntary unemployment owing to shortages of fuel and raw materials in some industries and fuller employment in others; panic owing either to enemy action or to rumours of such action and consequent migrations and dislocations; a sharp rise in the price-level and acute shortage of supplies resulting in economic hardship; a complete lack of uniformity in regard to wage policy as between industry and industry and even as between concern and concern in the same centre of an industry; the enactment of emergency legislation and its adverse effects on labour and industry.

Shortages of Fuel and Raw Materials.

Owing to acute shortage of coal and in some cases of electric power, many factories had to remain closed for some days in the month, during the War period, particularly during the years 1942-44. This led to considerable voluntary idleness amongst workers employed in such factories. The Standing Orders framed for the cotton mill industry in important centres provide for playing-off due to *force majeure* and in most cases the workers get no compensation for such enforced idleness. In the jute mill industry, however, as a result of the efforts made by the Commissioner of Labour, Bengal, the employers agreed to give what is known as *khoraki*, amounting to Rs. 4-6-0 per week during such weeks as the workers had to remain compulsorily idle owing to shortage of fuel and raw materials. In most of the industries, including glass, shellac, engineering (such as iron foundries, rolling mills), etc., the unemployment was not alleviated by any action on the part of employers or of Government. Agitation was indeed carried on by labour leaders asking Government to institute an Unemployment Assistance scheme for the benefit of workers temporarily thrown out of work owing to shortage of fuel and raw materials. Unfortunately, however, owing to the difficulties of instituting such a scheme during war time, and owing great mobility of labour and the sudden emergency of the problem, no such scheme could be evolved at short notice. As a consequence, workers suffered considerably.

Another war-time development relates mainly to the jute mill industry in Bengal, where several mills were commandeered by the army for war purposes. Thus, while there was an insistent cry for more production, owing to the closure of these mills production naturally decreased. This

contingency was met by the Jute Mills Association by working two shifts in such mills as had not been commandeered and these were known as "foster mills." Speaking generally, when a single management had two mills belonging to it, one a commandeered mill and the second a "foster mill", the latter was converted into a mill working double shifts where the workers from the first mill were transferred. This process, however, took a certain time for adjustment and, in the meanwhile, the workers in the commandeered mills had to go without work.

Owing to the war panic among the workers in jute mills, the industry suffered from a considerable shortage of labour for a long period. Attempts were made to induce local labour to take up jobs in the mills but this mostly failed. Even during the dark days of the Bengal famine, the local workers were unwilling to take up jobs of coolies and sweepers in the mills as they considered it below their dignity to accept them contrary to their policy, the managements had to recruit a certain amount of child labour. Likewise, owing to the war scare, there were large-scale exoduses to villages from centres like Bombay and Madras, and this caused a temporary scarcity of labour which had to be remedied by makeshift arrangements.

Effects on Standard of Living.

The enormous expansion of currency and credit, which took place during the War period, has had its inevitable repercussions on the price structure of the country and on the standard of living of the masses. Unlike countries in the West, the measures adopted by the employers to meet the increase in the cost of living was by way of granting a dearness allowance instead of making alterations in the basic wage structure, except in the case of some employers who had to raise the basic wages of unskilled workers such as coolies because of the great dearth of this type of labour. It must be conceded that with the rise in prices, soon after the outbreak of the war, employers in organised industries, particularly those in the Bombay Province, were quick to grasp the necessity of granting relief to the workers; and the existence of a suitable legal machinery to deal with such matters saved the workers and the industry from considerable suffering and dislocation. While this is true generally of the cotton mill industry throughout India, this was not true of other industries employing large numbers of workers such as the plantations, the jute mill industry, etc. The quantum of relief granted has, however, varied from industry to industry and from centre to centre in the same industry. As a matter of fact, there has been a complete lack of uniformity in this matter. Workers in places in which either legal machinery or collective bargaining has existed have been able to secure much greater relief than others. For instance, in Ahmedabad, the employers' and employees' association agreed that the relief to be granted should be equal to the full extent of the increase in the cost of living, while in Bombay City the workers were reimbursed to the extent of 75% of the increase in the cost of living. On the other hand, in the planations in Assam; no dearness allowance at all has been paid and the relief granted has been by way of providing certain articles of consumption at pre-war rates. In the jute mill industry, the cash allowance given amount to Rs. 2 per week *plus* certain foodgrain concessions the money value of which comes to Rs. 1-4-9 per week. Both in the jute mill

industry and the plantations, which are largely owned by European interests, a higher cash allowance has been denied, as an anti-inflationary measure.

From Chapter VII of this Report it will be seen that, as compared to the pre-war period, the cost of living in 1944 had arisen by nearly 150 per cent as compared to the pre-war period. As a matter of fact, in the eastern regions of the country such as Bengal and Assam, it had risen by nearly 200 per cent. Owing to the adoption of a flat rate of dearness allowance based upon the cost of living index number irrespectively of the wages of the worker, the lowest paid categories of employees were, speaking broadly, much better off than during the pre-war period in spite of the increase in the cost of living. On the other hand, the higher and medium paid workers suffered considerably because of the failure of the dearness allowance to catch up with the increase in their cost of living. Thus, except for the principal centres of the cotton mill industry such as Bombay, Ahmedabad, Cawnpore, Indore and Delhi, the dearness allowance granted was entirely inadequate and nominal, with the result that the workers' standard of living deteriorated considerably. In this connection, it is often argued that owing to the increase in the total volume of employment created by war conditions, the number of earners in the workers' families had gone up resulting in a higher family income. There is no statistical proof for this contention and such information as is available tends to indicate that nothing of the sort has happened, as most of the new recruits to the industry have been single men who have migrated from the villages because of the lure of high wages especially in depots and factories started for war purposes.

Effects on Employment of Labour.

During the war period, the economy of India more or less approximated to the ideal of Full Employment, although this was mainly directed towards production of goods and services ultimately intended for destruction. The full employment was largely the consequence of military recruitment, and the requirements of auxiliary services, contractors, military construction work, etc., as also of the industries, which were catering for the War effort or for a closed market created by the cessation of imports from abroad. As stated already in this Report, the sudden cessation of hostilities in 1945 has created a major problem for solution during the transition from War to Peace.

Control of Industries.

During the war, a number of industries were controlled by Government with a view to maximum production and economic distribution. These industries mainly included iron and steel, cement, coal, paper, silk, wool, mica, etc. This control of industries was not, however, accompanied by any definite labour policy, especially in respect of wages and earnings and conditions of work. Broadly speaking, from the viewpoint of labour, the important part of the control consisted of the price policy pursued by Government. In regard to the produce of the industries concerned, notably of mica, silk and wool, the prices offered to the producers were not correspondingly as high as the prices of commodities purchased by the workers. Thus, for example, in the case of mica, as compared to the pre-war price level, an additional allowance was made of 42½ per cent for some years, while the prices of food-stuffs and other articles of consumption

were soaring high, to the extent of 150 to 200 per cent. A similar position arose in silk and wool. Thus, the employers felt justified in refusing all demands of the workers for higher wages or for a higher dearness allowance.

Effects on Working Conditions.

Working conditions in factories, particularly those in Bengal, were considerably affected by war conditions. In the first place, ordinances were passed allowing for an increase of working hours. Owing to the additional duties imposed on the factory inspectorate, effective factory inspection also became difficult. Moreover, owing to the commandeering by the army of certain mills, ware-houses, etc., there was a lot of congestion and overcrowding in the factories. The unavailability of building material, etc., also made it impossible to have any extensions or to develop recreational and other facilities. As a matter of fact, in the jute mill area in Bengal, even playing-fields intended for workers were commandeered in many cases.

II. Needs and Risks of Labour.

We may now consider the principal needs of the working classes and the risks or contingencies to which they are exposed. To a large extent, the problem of needs is complementary to that of risks, and, broadly speaking, any measures taken to ensure for the worker the provisions of his needs would *pro tanto* help to mitigate the severity of the risks of insecurity to which he is liable. Broadly speaking, the principal basic and perennial needs of labour relate to (i) adequate wages and earnings which would ensure to the worker and his family a minimum standard of life and prevent them from getting into debts, (ii) a minimum standard of housing accommodation so as to provide a healthy living and to ensure privacy of family life, (iii) security of tenure, when in employment and freedom from fear of victimisation, (iv) freedom of association, (v) reasonable facilities for rest and recreation, both during working hours and by way of holidays and leave, and (vi) provision of welfare measures. In addition to these basic and perennial needs of labour, industrial workers are exposed to certain risks or contingencies of insecurity, which can be regarded as sporadic in the lives of workmen. These risks include sickness, employment injury, childbirth, old age, death of breadwinner, and unemployment. During such spells of insecurity, two consequences follows:—loss of income and probable loss of employment as well. A distinction has to be drawn between the perennial needs of labour and its sporadic needs arising from spells of insecurity. So far as the former are concerned, the remedy lies in *basic* Labour Legislation as already indicated; on the other hand, with regard to the latter, special schemes of Social Security are necessary.

Wage Structure and Wage Policy.

As the Government of India have under contemplation the question of devising a machinery for the fixation of minimum wages in different industries, it is unnecessary for us to deal in detail with the existing wage structure or to make suggestions for its reforms. Our surveys, however, will bring home to any reader the fact that the basic wage level in most Indian industries is extremely low. As a matter of fact, considering the question broadly, little or nothing has been done by the principal industries in this country to revise in an upward direction the basic wage of their operatives except where the employers have been forced either by

Government or by labour. It is, however, not merely private industry that has failed to do so, but also Governments and semi-public bodies like railways, municipalities and port trusts. Among factory industries, in a monopoly trade like jute manufacture, the wage level compares unfavourably with the level obtaining in other industries like cotton in Bengal. Plantation labour, although somewhat different in character, continues to receive shockingly low wages and as recent nutritional enquiries have shown, labourers in plantations have been falling prey to pestilence and disease. Unlike many Western countries, the rise in the cost of living is partly compensated by grant of dearness allowance which is purely temporary in character. Such an allowance is no substitute for a revision of the basic wage structure. From the workers' point of view, the long-term improvement in basic wages is desirable in periods of rising prices, but if temporary allowances are paid this expectation is not fulfilled. In other words, high prices generally rule during times of booms and wars and it is only then that a worker is in a position to demand and obtain a higher standard of living for himself which may continue even when times are not so good if the changes effected were in the basic wages and not merely in the allowances. The scale of dearness allowance varies from industry to industry and from centre to centre; but there are also considerable variations in the scale of the allowance in the same centre. It is impossible to understand how in a centre, where the scale of dearness allowance is decided upon by an impartial tribunal like, say, an Industrial Court or a Board of Conciliation, other employers in the same centre can justify paying a lower allowance, if the allowance has been scientifically related to the increase in the cost of living. The only industry in the country which has compensated the workers for the full rise in the cost of living has been the cotton textile industry in Ahmedabad, while elsewhere it has been a veritable museum of oddities.

Standardization of Wages and Occupational Nomenclatures

In the principal factory industries in the country, namely, cotton and jute, the wage rates and earnings remain entirely unstandardised, in spite of repeated discussions on the subject now for several years. The only important centre of the cotton mill industry in which wages have been standardised is Ahmedabad and an attempt in this direction has also been recently made at Indore. It is stated that the main obstacle in brining about standardization is the lack of co-operation of laboour. This is, however, only one side of the picture. It would appear that the employers in this inudstry are afraid of departing from the *status quo*. The figures in the *ad hoc* survey Report on Cotton clearly show how wages vary from unit to unit in the same centre. Similarly, in the jute mill industry in Bengal, there are such large variations in the wage rates even in the same locality that it is no wonder that labour should be mobile and restless and want to get a job in a mill where the rates are higher. It cannot be too strongly urged that modern industry cannot proceed on such a basis. Even in semi-Government bodies like municipalities and port trusts, there is little or no standardization either of wages or of conditions of work and it is surprising that the ports, which are locally managed by the Port Trustees or Commissioners under the direction of a department of the Central Government, should not have attempted to bring about a standardised conditions of either work or of wages.

Indebtedness

From Chapter VIII it is clear that the phenomenon of the worker being in debt is almost universal in this country. As already indicated, this may, in some cases, be due to improvidence and vice, but we are satisfied that in the majority of cases indebtedness has a great deal to do with the low earnings of workers which leave them little, if any, margin at all to meet any extraordinary calls on their income such as sickness, death, marriages, ceremonies, festivals, etc. It is commonly supposed that the worker gets indebted because of his improvidence, but a closer analysis would suggest that this is true only to a limited extent. More often than not, the worker has to spend beyond his income because of conventional necessities and social obligations which, being part of the social order, he cannot evade. To expect him to do so is to expect the impossible. Whatever be the wage level, the worker will always incur such expenditure in any case. The best course, therefore, is to make allowance for this in our wage decisions. The Royal Commission made a series of recommendations for mitigating the evil of indebtedness. A few of the Provinces and States have taken action in this matter, but the result so far achieved can only be regarded as disappointing. The factory worker is still being manhandled by Pathans, Sikhs, Marwaries and their ilk and exorbitant rates of interest continue to be demanded and, in some cases, paid. The problem is not easy of solution. At the same time, considering that indebtedness is a severe drag on the health and efficiency of the worker from generation to generation, we feel that in any Labour Code that may be framed this problem must receive due attention. Incidentally, our enquiries indicate that workers are not averse to a system of co-operation for relieving indebtedness, if they are initiated into the idea.

Housing and Housing Policy

We do not wish to repeat what has been said about the shocking housing conditions in industrial centres. Broadly speaking, the growth of industry in this country has synchronized with the growth of slums. The *cheries* of Madras, the *busteés* of Calcutta, the *ahatas* of Cawnpore and the *chawls* of Bombay outslum the slumdoms of many parts of the world. The problem of the housing of industrial workers has been all these years, in the stage of debate and little constructive action has resulted. The State has, therefore, once and for all, to make up its mind about the exact lines of policy it proposes to adopt in this regard and to take bold and immediate action to implement its policy. Our study clearly shows that a real long-term solution of the problem lies not in tinkering with slum clearance in overcrowded cities, but in going to the root of the matter and devising a policy whereby the future rise of slums will be effectively prevented. In the shaping of such a policy, we feel that the recognition of certain guiding principles may be helpful. In stating those principles, we do not wish to be dogmatic, as the application of these principles must vary according to the circumstances of each case. Broadly, however, the desirable lines of future policy appear to be as follows. In the first place, the question has to be decided as to whose responsibility it is to provide housing, whether of the employer, the State, the workers, or of municipalities or other organised bodies. If housing is made the employer's liability, it is not likely to be adequately discharged without imposing a heavy burden on his resources and competitive power especially in big

cities, owing to the scarcity and high values of land sites. It is therefore too much to expect the employers to house all their workers in an adequate manner. On the other hand, the problem assumes, a different complexion in the case of establishments situated far from urban centres. Here, the State can legitimately impose upon the employer the responsibility of providing adequate and decent housing for all workers who need it, and this should not ordinarily entail too great a burden upon the resources of the establishment, because land and building labour in such places are likely to be very cheap. Moreover, in such places, no alternative private housing is likely to be available and if the employers do not build houses, the result would be the creation of slums such as ill-ventilated thatched huts erected by the workers on plots leased out to them by the employers.

Viewing the problem in its proper perspective, we feel that the only effective solution of the problem in crowded industrial cities may lie in the *dispersal* of industrial establishments over larger areas. Such a dispersal to be effective would require the active assistance of the State in granting the necessary facilities for the acquisition of land, arrangements for cheap transport, sanitation, lighting and construction of roads and other amenities, by laying down a concerted policy to be pursued co-operatively by the railways, the municipalities or district boards, and the employers concerned. The war has brought home to us both the extent of evils of overcrowding and the manner in which dispersal of industries can be effected. In foreign countries, during war time, large planes have had to be shifted from one area to another, so as to preserve the industrial structure from destruction. This experience is likely to be valuable in shaping our future housing policy.

In this connection, we feel that the State may advantageously pursue two definite courses of action: Firstly, it may direct that all new establishments should be located in scattered areas, where the necessary transport facilities would be available. Secondly, it may follow a steady policy of encouraging the *transplantation* of existing factories from the congested industrial areas to suburban or rural areas, again subject to the consideration of availability of transport and other facilities. Actually, in the case of congested industrial areas, such transplantation may prove financially beneficial to the owner himself; but one can well imagine that in some cases the difference between the cost of transplantation and the cost of land in the rural areas, on the one hand, and the price to be obtained by selling land in the urban area on the other, may involve a little loss to the owner. In such cases, after scrutiny, the State may bear a part or whole of the loss incurred. If the State pursues this policy of transplantation, we feel certain that it will benefit not only the industry concerned and the labour it employs, but also large numbers of non-industrial citizens in urban areas.

On the question of finance, there may be a difference of opinion as to the agency or methods to be adopted. Most enlightened modern States have accepted the principle that certain social needs such as elementary education, medical relief, etc., should be made available free of charge to the masses. Housing of the poor is *on* par with the medical and other social services and there seems no reason why the State should not accept a positive responsibility in regard to this matter instead of merely taking negative action such as rent control, slum clearance, etc. We may state

here that in many countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States of America and Russia, this responsibility is being increasingly accepted. We feel that the time has now arrived for the State to shoulder the responsibility at least to provide the capital finance for housing, leaving the recurrent expenditure to be shared in varying proportions by the other interests concerned.

Finally, we are of the opinion that the entire industrial housing policy of the country should be entrusted to statutory Central and Provincial Boards with appropriate functions. Such Boards should be of a tripartite character and should be required to deal with all questions of housing policy, including actual construction, standards of accommodation, finance, ownership, etc. Although we feel that as far as possible the tripartite principle should be observed so far as ownership is concerned, encouragement should be given in particular cases, to workers to build their own houses on co-operative or other principles.

Security of Employment.

The next important need of the worker is security of tenure and freedom from fear of victimization. This question has already been touched upon in an earlier Chapter. However, we would like to emphasize it here once more. Our surveys show that a majority of the workers, in organized and unorganized industries alike, barring a few exceptions such as cotton textiles, engineering, etc., are more or less on a temporary basis, with the result that they are in constant fear of losing their jobs. Even in the case of the so-called 'permanent' workers, the rights of permanency are rarely defined, and even when they are, the worker seldom enjoys security of employment, and he is liable to be discharged at short notice at the sweet will of the employer or his subordinate officers. This militates equally against the worker's efficiency and his self-respect. No doubt, to a large extent, the system of recruitment and promotion, which leaves a large scope for corruption and favouritism is at the bottom of the trouble. Therefore, one of the very first things to be done in our labour programme is to regularise the systems of recruitment and promotion, of discharge and dismissal, and of ventilation and redress of grievances. Here, we would draw pointed attention to the provisions of the Bombay Industrial Disputes Act, 1939, under which Standing Orders have to be framed by the Commissioner of Labour in consultation with the parties concerned, and in the event of disagreement to be finally settled by the Industrial Court. The proposed Central Government's Bill on the subject of Standing Orders is, we feel, a step in the right direction.

Apart from the legal protection which may be made available to the worker for ensuring security, the bulwork against unjustified dismissal or victimization is trade union organisation. Unfortunately, however, since the date of the publication of the Royal Commission's Report, there has been little advance in this respect. There are, no doubt, a few exceptions such as the Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association, All-India Railwaymen's Federation, etc. In this connection, we may invite attention to a rather unique experiment which is being made in Madura, where the Workers' Union is not only recognized by the management, but actively fostered by it. Here the recruitment in the mills is made through the

Union and the Union officials are consulted at every step, when the management wishes to make any changes in regard to work, wages or welfare of the operatives.

The Government of India have under consideration a Bill for the compulsory recognition of trade unions in this country. The Mysore Labour Act, 1942, under which any factory which has amongst its workers 100 or more members of a Union has to recognize the Union and to deal with its office bearers, is, in some respects, a step forward, because it gives an opportunity to the representatives of the workers to be in a position to negotiate with the management as a matter of right. In actual practice, however, it is a moot point how far such recognition would help in enabling labour to fight its bettles effectivtly. It seems to us that unless labour itself is very strongly organized and produces capable leaders and until also the mentality of the bulk of the employers in this country undergoes a radical change, effective trade unionism in this country would be difficult of attainment.

Freedom of Association.

This brings us to what we consider to be one of the fundamental principles, namely, Freedom of Association. According to the law of the land, there is perfect freedom of association and, as a matter of fact, the I. L. O. Convention on the subject was ratified by the Government of India in the year 1923. Actually, however, from such evidence as we were able to obtain during the course of our enquiries, we found that, barring a few honourable exceptions such as municipal and port trust administrations and a few individual employers, freedom of association exists only in name. That is not to say, however, that the workers in this country are not permitted to organize themselves into trade unions and, in point of fact; in the year 1943, there were in the country as many as 693 registered trade unions, out of which 489 sent in returns and their membership was 6,85,299. Very few of these unions have, however, been recognized by the employers and even where they are, the relations between the two are far from cordial. Moreover, excepting a few enlightened employers, most others in the country are inclined to look upon trade unions as no better than necessary evils. This is one of the reasons why, during recent years, whenever agreements had to be brought about between employers and employees, these were seldom the result of collective bargaining but almost invariably of adjudications or awards.

Rest and Recreation.

We may now turn to some of the other basic needs of the worker, which appear to us fundamental and which affect his health and efficiency. These include reasonable facilitiies for rest and recreation, welfare measures and the provisions of congenial conditions of work and safety measures. In regard to these, there is a certain amount of regulation under the Factories Act. Apart from the establishments governed by the Factories Act, in others there is hardly any provision about them. Even in registered factories, however, the rest intervals granted are not always sufficient to ensure rest to the worker. For instance, in continuous-process factories, no rest interval is usually granted except that after 12 days' continuous work there is a break of 32 hours and in some other types of factories there is a break for 32 hours after 21 days' work. In the jute mills in Bengal, the interval granted between two spells of work is sometimes as long as

4 to 5 hours, but such interval hardly serves the purpose of rest because, where no housing is provided nearby, the workers have to go a few miles to their homes to cook their food and to rush back to work. During our surveys, we did not come across a single establishment in which there existed, even for women, arrangements for seating while at work, and, generally speaking, the problem of industrial fatigue appears to have been altogether ignored. Apart from this, in most establishments there is no provision for rest shelters with the result that the workers have to eat their meals either in the departments themselves or in the open and get no rest at all. We need hardly take notice of the contention of many managements that Indian workers prefer to rest under the shade of trees rather than in shelters built for the purpose. Barring a few exceptions, the shelters we have inspected have been no better than cattle-sheds.

Apart from rest intervals, which are vitally concerned with the problem of industrial fatigue, it is axiomatic that after a continuous spell of hard work, any human being needs of period of rest and recuperation. Most of the industrial workers in this country get no holidays with pay, the principle followed being "No work, no pay". Fortunately, so far as workers in perennial factories are concerned, this position has recently been rectified by the enactment of the Holidays with Pay Act, 1945, which is to take effect from the 1st January, 1946. According to this Act, workers in factories, who have completed a period of 12 months continuous service are entitled to 10 consecutive days (if a child, 14 days) as holidays with pay, which can be accumulated for a period of two years. Although this measure, fulfills a long felt want, we feel that further reform is necessary in two directions. Firstly, as our surveys have shown, in the main centres of the principal factory industries of the country such as Jute, Cotton and Engineering, a large proportion of the labour has their village homes in distant parts of the country entailing long journeys by rail, steamship and road. In such cases, most of these holidays allowed by the Act are likely to be exhausted in the journeys alone. Such journeys entail considerable expenditure and the worker is not likely to undertake them unless he is sure of being able to stay in his village home at least for a fairly long period. Thus, to be beneficial from the workers' point of view, the law must provide for accumulation of leave for a much longer period than two years, say, for five years. Secondly, if facilities are granted to extend such holidays with pay by permitting the workers to tack on holidays without pay for a further period which may be, say, twice as much as the holidays with pay due, and the worker is assured of this job on his return, such facilities would not entail any serious inconvenience because, under the Standing Orders in Bombay, a month's leave with or without pay, is granted for 12 months' continuous service and there is a convention in the Jute mills in Bengal that a worker may be allowed leave for going to his village home up to a period of three months. We also feel that the need for a holiday with pay in the case of other perennial establishments, such as mines, plantations, communications, etc., is no less than of workers in perennial factories and the principle enunciated in the Act might well be extended to such establishments in order to make such legislation more or less universal in its scope. In this connection we may point out that in the gold mines, in the mineral oil industry and in the Iron Ore Industry, provision already exists in certain establishments for

grant of holidays with pay as well as without pay. Likewise, in the Assam Tea Plantations, the worker has a right of repatriation every three years, although such repatriation implies no remuneration during absence. The conclusion, therefore, is obvious that the extension of this Act to other perennial establishments would not be very contradictory to the existing practice.

Welfare Measures.

An important matter touching the life of the industrial worker is the adoption of welfare measures by the State, the employer and, perhaps, the workers' associations. In this regard we find great variations as between Province and Province and from industry to industry and also as between the different units of the same industry. No doubt, the Government of India and the Provincial and State Governments have recently introduced various types of welfare activities but these, we are afraid, touch only the fringe of problem and cover only a small section of the working classes. We feel that these activities need to be considerably extended so as to cover not only a few urban centres, mainly of factory industries, but also mines, plantations, communications, etc. Secondly, a more urgent need is to lay down a definite minimum standard of welfare to be observed by employers in different industries. In this connection, we may refer to the Welfare Orders issued from time to time by the Minister of Labour in the United Kingdom.

Under the Factories Act, provision has been made for the supply of clean drinking water to the operatives and scales have also been laid down regarding sanitary arrangements. In most industrial centres, however, we found that the arrangements made for drinking water were extremely primitive in character, little attention being paid either to cleanliness or to the convenience of the operative. Seemingly, this is a trivial matter, but acutally it is of the greatest importance from the point of view of the comfort of the worker especially during summer months in the hotter parts of the country. The provision of the supply of clean drinking water in properly constructed shelters would be a matter of little expense to the employer and we feel that immediate action is called for in making radical improvements in the present arrangements.

Most factories in this country adhere to the rules of the Factories Act in regard to providing the requisite sanitary accommodation. However, it seems to be nobody's business to see to its cleanliness and upkeep. During our investigations in many of the factories visited by us, we found these arrangements so loathsome that it is a wonder that the factory inspectorates conrerned have not paid more attention to this matter.

Risks of Insecurity

This risks of insecurity to which industrial labour is generally exposed are, in any country, unemployment, sickness, employment injury, occupational disease, childbirth, old age, and the death of breadwinner. There is no reason to imagine that the Indian worker is less liable to any of these risks than the worker in other countries; if at all, he is far more liable. Sir William Beveridge's Five Giants, viz., Want, Idleness, Ignorance, Squalor and Disease floorish in India. Of the risks mentioned above, probably unemployment, sickness and death of breadwinner are the most serious, but these have received the least attention so far.

Unemployment.

Throughout her history, India has been subject to chronic unemployment and under-employment. This state of affairs is due to certain vital factors which we do not propose to deal with here as they are common knowledge. No doubt, to a large extent the problem revolves round the population question and also the question of national planning. The enormous growth of population which has taken place, unaccompanied by a corresponding growth in production of wealth, has accentuated this problem. It is a platitude to say that this has caused a great pressure on the soil and disrupted the village economy. The position that it has created in the towns, however, is different in character, but more serious in magnitude than that created by it in the village. In the village, if a worker is unemployed, partially or wholly, he does not always starve, but has at least a shelter to fall back upon and probably some food from the family pool to enable him to tide over the difficult period. On the other hand, in an industrial town, away from the home, the worker with no personal credit is entirely helpless, if he is unemployed. The surplus labour force available in industrial centres has given rise to a very inequitable and vicious system of recruitment under which corruption and bribery seem to thrive and under which the workers are often exploited by a host of unscruplous intermediaries. *Badli* labour, contract labour and such other systems as floating labour in docks, railways, etc., are merely manifestations of the same phenomenon. Further, the fact that lacks of workers migrate to alien lands, such as Malaya, Burma, Ceylon, Fiji, Mauritius, British Guina, West Indies, etc., under conditions of work and wages which are not too satisfactory and which have caused a considerable amount of political and international controversy, shows how serious is the problem of unemployment and under-employment in this country. ' It also shows that conditions of work and wages in India are so inferior as to induce workers to leave their families and go thousands of miles away. Alternatively, it is also an indication of the seriousness of unemployment. It is clear that a nation wide programme of full employment is a very urgent necessity so far as labour is concerned. It is exiomatic that in no country should there remain a large body of persons either unemployed or underemployed, constituting as it does, an enormous waste of potential wealth, apart from the physical, moral and, psychological losses which it entails upon the working-class community. It is clear that a progradme of Full Employment, by which we mean a situation in which there are more jobs than men, is imperative in the case of this country which has been suffering long from the evil of Unemployment. It is only during the War period that there has been anything approaching full employment for the working classes. Before that, even in cities, there was mass unemployment and under-employment and it seems a curious commentary on our economic and social organization that we should need Wars to create employment.

Sickness.

The incidence of sickness among industrial workers in India is likely to be found much higher than in other countries. The usual tendency amongst workers is go on working in spite of sickness and thus to aggravate

it. Severe chronic diseases, such as tuberculosis, malaria, dysentry, etc. are often neglected with dire consequences to the worker's health. The causes of sickness amongst industrial workers are well-known and comprise epidemics, low vitality, malnutrition, bad, and insanitary housing and vices peculiar to city life. We need not stress the enormous loss to the national income which arises from sickness and the harm done thereby to the health and efficiency of the worker. From the worker's point of view, moreover, sickness is often a double if not a treble calamity, involving not only loss of income but also of employment and health. Sickness accounts for a large proportion of absenteeism in factories, mines and plantations. During sickness, the worker is often inclined to repair to his village where he hopes to recover with the help of Nature. Medical care as such has been provided in many industrial centres, but this is hardly adequate and is not always efficient, and the workers have generally little confidence in the treatment provided. Our general observation as regards the existing medical facilities, whether provided by the employers or by the State or public bodies, is that there is a high degree of red-tapism and that the real needs of the workers are not properly attended to. Not ony this, but in some places it appears that the employers' hospitals and dispensaries give preferential treatment to the officers and management in factories to the comparative neglect of the employees. Moreover, there is often recurrence of the same illness owing to insufficient after-care. The urgent necessity of providing medical care under some sort of insurance scheme has been long felt in India and has been the subject-matter of discussion for nearly two decades. Fortunately, the Government of India have now accepted the principle of insurance and propose in the near future to implement a scheme of sickness insurance, accompanied by insurance against employment injury and childbirth. The main features of the scheme are (*a*) provision of medical care in the event of sickness, employment injury and occupational disease and childbirth; (*b*) cash benefit and pensons during such spells of insecuriy; (*c*) sharing of the financial burden by the State (including the Central and Provincial Governments), employers and workers; (*d*) a democratic administrative machinery. based upon tripartite representations; (*e*) provision of a judiciary to settle disputes and hear complaints in regard to all matters covered by the scheme. The scheme at present is intended to apply to perennial factories in the first instance, and is likely to be extended to other industries subsequently. The bill on the subject, it is understood, will shortly be introduced in the Indian Legislature.

Employment Injury.

As regards employment injury, our broad finding is that owing to the comparatively less hazardous nature of Indian industries (*e.g.*, textile industry, plantations, small unregulated factories, etc.) the incidence of accidents is on the low side. However, this fact is to some extent counterbalanced by the comparatively unsatisfactory provision of safety devices in most industries. The Factories Act and the Mines Act no doubt lay down a number of provisions in respect of safety and prevention of accidents. However, it appears that these provisions are not always observed by employers and owing to inadequate inspection not always properly enforced. One of the first things to be done in this regard will have to be the provision of a more elaborate machinery for prevention of

accidents in factories, mines, etc. A Safety Code, embodying provisions of both a general and specific character, applicable to various industries of a hazardous character is desirable. Any system of social insurance providing coverage for employment injury will, no doubt, have to create an appropriate machinery for dealing with this matter. An important point arising from the administration of the present Workmen's Compensation Act is the extent to which the Act is being observed by the employers. Broadly speaking, the Act is observed by most of the large-scale concerns, but there is a tendency on the part of some (especially smaller) employers to exploit the ignorance of the workers and to escape their full liability under the Act. Very often, the worker is paid hush-money and bundled of to his village with the result that his claim becomes time-barred. Although the act makes provision against coercion of the worker in agreeing to accept compensation, there are actual instances in which workers are coerced into accepting a lower sum than what is due to them by taking their thumb-impression on an agreement which they are incapable of reading. The legal and administrative machinery devised in connection with the Act is also somewhat complicated for the workmen. Nor is any effort made to make the worker understand his rights under the Act, although the Royal Commission had definitely recommended that pamphlets in vernacular explaining the main provisions of the Act should be circulated among the employees of factories. Abstracts from the Act are no doubt displayed at the factory gates, but these are hardly read or understood by the workers. Moreover, the worker seldom gets proper legal assistance, barring, of course, assistance given by a few trade unions.

Occupational Disease.

As regards occupational diseases, although some of these have been included under Schedule III to the Workmen's Compensation Act, it is virtually inoperative, and the position pointed out by the Royal Commission that only in cases of lead poisoning are workers compensated for, still holds good. This is largely because the diseases enumerated in the Schedule are difficult of early detection by ordinary medical men, and unfortunately we have few experts in India who have any specialised knowledge of industrial diseases. This means that even if the Schedule is extended the workers will not get much relief. The proper course is to establish an adequate machinery for research and early diagnosis and treatment of occupational diseases. Information on the subject is rather scanty in India and although we issued in our General Questionnaire an Appendix on the subject, hardly any useful material has been supplied by employers or others. At the same time, we have no doubt that in mines and factories, the incidence of occupational diseases must be not inconsiderable. In view of all these facts, we are inclined to the view that the whole problem of provision for employment injury and occupational diseases should be taken out of the hands of the employers and entrusted to an organization set up for State insurance. We understand that this is in fact contemplated by the Government of India and that under the proposed Unified Scheme of Social Insurance for factory workers, coverage is provided for employment injury and occupational diseases.

Childbirth.

As regards childbirth, in most of the Provinces, there are Maternity Benefit Acts and there is also the Mines Maternity Benefit Act (which is a Central measure) which impose the liability for the payment of maternity benefit upon the employer. However, we are not satisfied that these Acts are being propperly observed or enforced especially in the smaller concerns. There are various devices adopted to evade liability under the Acts. Moreover, there has been some lack of uniformity amongst the various Provincial measures and it is satisfactory that the Government of India propose to include also childbirth in their proposed Unified Insurance Scheme for factory workers.

Old Age and Death.

Our investigations show that only a few enlightened employers in the country have made some provision for safe-guarding the future of their operatives when they retire, and of their dependents when they die, by way of either Provident Fund or Gratuity Schemes. The large bulk of industrial workers, however, remains uncovered and it is distressing that a worker who has toiled for 20 to 30 years in a factory should become destitute in his old age. We think that just as employees of Governments and of local bodies have something to fall back upon during old age, so also industrial labourers should be protected by a similar provision requiring employers to have pensions schemes. The incidence of death is probably much more serious in this contry than the incidence of old age in view of the low expectation of life. There is little or no provision against the contingency of the premature death of bread winner. As the average industrial worker is too poor to insure his life with commercial companies, and as such insurance is not always technically profitable, this field may best be reserved for State insurance of some kind.

III. The Panorama of Labour conditions and Labour Legislation

Here we propose to review broadly the widely varying conditions of labour in different industries and areas in the country and the extent to which labour legislation, as a whole, has succeeded in achieving its principal objects. Although, it is now more than half a century that the State has interested itself in labour legislation, the progress achieved is somewhat disappointing. Broadly speaking, this is due mainly to three causes,—firstly, conditions of work and wages in different industries vary occording to the respective strength of the employers' and the workers' organizations; secondly, the amount of interest evinced by Provincial Governments or States in bettering the lot of the working classes varies; and, thirdly, the standards adopted for the enforcement of existing labour legislation have differed widely as between various Provinces and the States *inter se*. We may illustrate this point by reference to certain facts. For instance, our survey clearly shows that in the jute mill industry the conditions of work and wages are some of the worst obtaining in this country; the hours are long, wages low, and amenities exceedingly poor. Similarly, the level of wages is exceedingly low in plantations. This has been largely due to the fact that in the jute mill and plantation industries, the employers have well-knit and strong organizations, while the workers are entirely unorganized. It is pertinent to refer here to the observation made by the Royal Commission that the jute mill industry has for years been in a privileged position owing to the fact that unlike its sister industry, cotton,

it has not been exposed to any public investigation such as Tariff Board and special labour enquiries. Many recommendations made by the Royal Commission in regard to reform of labour conditions on plantations still remain unimplemented. Moreover, owing to the strength of the organisation of the employers, even existing legislation has not been enforced in the areas concerned with the same vigour with which it is being enforced in, for example, a Province like Bombay. The power and prestige of vested interests in jute and plantations and certain allied industries have been so great that they have been able to secure for themselves a very sheltered position, which has resulted in their being hardly any amelioration during the last many years in the conditions of labour employed. In making the above remarks, we have no desire to particularise, but the contrast is so striking that we cannot avoid making a reference to it.

As regards also the interest evinced by different Provinces there have been considerable disparities both in regard to labour legislation and its enforcement. Up till now, as has been clear from our surveys, most of the labour legislation in India has been Central and the Provincial Governments have largely exercised their rule-making power. This responsibility has been discharged by different Provinces in different ways and degrees and the intentions of the legislature have not always been fully carried out. With the advent of popular ministries, labour welfare through the agency of Government received considerable fillip and some of the Provinces, notably Bombay, launched on a programme of welfare work for industrial workers in principal centres of industries. The example of Bombay was followed by few others but not on the same scale. As regards the Central Government, a forward step in this direction has recently been taken by the imposition of the cess on coal mines for purposes of building up a large welfare fund.

When proposals for labour legislation are mooted in British India, employer interests generally argue that unless such legislation applied also to the Indian States their competitive power would suffer and that industries would be shifted from British territory to the territory of Indian States. It is, therefore, important to examine to what extent, if any, labour conditions in the Indian States are inferior to those obtaining in British India. So far as legislation is concerned, many of the industrially advanced States have more or less the same labour enactments as in British India, but these are very few, while a vast majority have no labour legislation at all. It may be pointed out here that one of the industrially advanced States in India has not yet enforced the Factories Act which is nominally on its statute book, and while a number of Labour Act have been passed, some of them still await a notification in the official State gazette for being put into force! As a matter of fact, it has been an exceedingly simple task for some of the States to merely reprint British Indian legislation word by word. Turning to the question of enforcement of labour laws, we feel that this is a somewhat difficult question to answer, *viz.*, whether standards of enforcement are better in the States or in the Provinces. In some Provinces, owing to inadequacy of the inspectorate and other causes, enforcement is still poor; and the same situation exists in a number of States which have placed a large number of labour Acts on their statute books. On the whole, it does not appear that the standards of enforcement in the States, with one or two exception, are particularly high. This fact taken with the other that in many States there are no

labour laws even, must suggest that the apprehensions regarding transfer of industries are justified. Apart from the question of enforcement of legislation, however, from the enquiries that we were able to conduct in some of the States, we can broadly state that with the exception of one or two States, the right of freedom of association of workers was generally discouraged by the State authorities, who were inclined to regard it as a part of the political programme of their subjects.

Labour in Cottage Industries

An important fact revealed by our *ad hoc* surveys in various unorganised and unregulated industries, such as shellac, mica-splitting, coir-matting, glass bangle making, carpet-weaving, *bidi*-making, etc., has been the very unsatisfactory conditions of labour in these so-called "cottage industries". The popular myth, somewhat like the "Merrie England" fallacy, to which we have been accustomed to give credence, that such small-scale and cottage factories enjoy immunity from some of the evils to which modern, large-scale industrialism is liable, stands exposed. Actually, the position is that conditions in such factories are worse than in factories regulated by, for example, the Factories Act. The places of work are generally ill-ventilated, ill-lighted, congested and positively dirty. There is no rule regarding hours of attendance and very often workers come early in the morning and return home late in the evening after work which is monotonous and irksome. Sanitation in and around the factories, especially in shellacc, carpet-weaving and coir-matting is far from satisfactory. In most of these industries, again, child labour is freely employed on low wages and sweated practically everywhere. Moreover, there is no security of tenure or any other rights for the workers who are, in most of these industries, on a purely temporary basis. We are keenly alive to the evils of the large-scale factory system, but as compared to the conditions in unregulated concerns, those in large scale factories are very much better. The conclusion which we would like to draw from this is that the small-scale cottage factories require to be regulated by law no less than the bigger factories, so far as the labouring classes are concerned.

Child Labour in Industry

One black spot of labour conditions in India is the illegal employment of children in certain industries. There are no doubt legal provisions, such as the Employment of Children Act, (1938), amended in 1939 so as to cover a number of small unregulated industries, and sections in the Factories Act and the Indian Mines Act, prohibiting the employment of children below a certain age. Nevertheless, in several concerns, the law appears to be infringed openly and with impunity. In large factory industries, generally speaking, the evil is non-existent. However, in mica-splitting, shellac, *bidi*-making, carpet-weaving, glass and other small-scale industries, whether covered by the Factories Act or by the Employment of Children Act, child labour is still largelly employed. In the match industry, especially in South India and in the cement industry in Rajputana also, child labour is employed to a very large extent. In the States, the situation is probably worse. For example, we found little girls employed in the Cochin State, in the spinning sections of the cotton textile industry, while in Kashmir children

of 5 or 6 years work in carpet-weaving. There are many specious arguments advanced by employers—who openly intringe the law—why children have to be employed: e.g., that the income of the family needs supplementing; that, in any case, the children will be idle owing to lack of educational facilities; etc. Those who employ children clandestinely, on the other hand, resort to various subterfuges, to which often the parents and relatives of the children are party. We think that it is not enough merely to prohibit the employment of children, but that it is essential to adopt simultaneously positive measures to wean away child labour from industrial employment. Government owe a duty to the future generations of workers to see that childhood is not wasted in the dingy corners of factories and workshops, instead of being educated in schools and brought up in nurseries and on playgrounds. We have no doubt that this is the accepted policy of Government but the policy needs the fullest enforcement through proper inspection and provision of educational and other facilities for workers' children.

Internal Migration

Migration in Indian industries is of two kinds: migration within the Province itself and inter-Provincial migration. The first is an outstanding feature of (e.g.) the cotton mill industry in Bombay, while the second is a feature of the jute mill industry, engineering and plantations. In regard to inter-district migration the problems which arise are not so serious as those relating to inter-Provincial migration in view of the long distances involved. In Chapter III dealing with Migration we have agreed with the findings of the Royal Commission that the workers' link with the village is a desirable thing, so long as social security is not provided. On the other hand, we feel that the State, while providing social security measures for workers, should also supervise the conditions under which workers migrate from Province to Province and give them the fullest facilities of travel and employment service. Simultaneously, the State should take positive measures to extend the avenues of employment available to the landless labourers in the village and thus take away the unwanted surplus of population which at present exerts a great pressure on land.

Efficiency of the Indian Worker.

It has been fashionable for a number of years now to justify the low wage level of the Indian industrial worker on the ground of his alleged inefficiency. Numerous comparisons are often attempted such as that an average Lancashire girl in a weaving shed can do the work of six Indian cotton mill operatives, etc. Such opinions usually emanate from individual employers who desire to sweat their labour. In this country, however, very few time and efficiency test are taken in order to ascertain the efficiency of the worker. It must be realised that efficiency in the weaving shed of a cotton mill referred to above does not necessarily depend upon the efficiency of the operatives, but is largely dependent also on the efficiency of the machinery, the lay-out of the plant, the conditions of work, and, what is most important, the efficiency of the management itself.

From such published evidence as is available and from the information we have been able to gather during the course of our investigations, we have come to the conclusions that the alleged inefficiency of the Indian

worker is largely a myth. Granting more or less identical conditions of work, wages, efficiency of management and of the mechanical equipment of the factory, the efficiency of Indian labour generally is no less than that of workers in most other countries. Not only this, but whether mechanical equipment or efficiency of management are not factors of any importance, the skill of the Indian labourer has been demonstrated to be even superior in some cases to that of his prototypes in foreign countries.

Recently the Grady Mission expressed a similar view in their Report on the technical efficiency of Indian industries. The testimony of individual large employers of labour has been similar. For instance, the following observation made by the Managing Director of the WIMCO, which controls about 80 per cent of the match production in this country, is of interest: "A great advantage enjoyed by factory managers in India is the abundance of cheap labour which can be trained by expert supervisors to operate the various intricate machines efficiently and keep them functioning smoothly. In well organised plants, the employee-production ratio is satisfactory even in comparison with European industrial standards." A few years ago, the General Manager of the General Motors Ltd., Bombay, stated that given the preliminary training, an individual Indian worker was as efficient as an average American worker. Likewise, in the mica splitting industry, India holds a premier position so far as the skill of the worker is concerned. In fact, for delicacy of touch in splitting, where no mechanical method is possible, the Indian worker in Bihar and Nellore easily beats his confrere in other countries; and for this reason, crude mica has always been imported into India for being converted into splittings to be supplied to countries like the United Kingdom and the United States of America. One reason, of course, is that Indian labour is cheap, but even apart from wages, the skill of the Indian mica worker is indisputably high. Likewise, in the shellac industry, which is largely a handicraft, the Indian worker in spite of his antiquated methods of production, holds his own in comparison with workers abroad, and manufacturers in foreign countries prefer Indian handmade shellac. The manufactures of silk in India are well-known even in others parts of the world for their delicate craftsmanship, and during the War the Government of India were entirely dependent on these factories for the production of the most precise fabric, namely, parachute cloth. The conditions of work and wages in this industry, as pointed out in our *ad hoc* survey reports, are some of the worst in the country and even so, the workers have been able to produce the goods to specifications. Our *ad hoc* surveys show that even in modern large-scale industries such as jute, cotton, cement and paper, the bulk of the labour employed is unskilled, without any previous training or any industrial traditions. Their daily rates of wages vary from as. 6 to as. 10. It is, of course, impossible for us to compare the efficiency of such labour with workers doing similar or the same work in other countries, and also, since the conditions of work, wages, training, etc., vary, such a comparison will not be fair. So far as semi-skilled and skilled workers are concerned, the experience during war-time, at any rate in engineering, dock-yards, railway workshops, etc., has shown that the Indian worker can adapt himself to changing conditions and turn out products of a complicated character if he is called upon to do so. In this connection, we may particularly refer to the work of ship-repairing carried out in several dock-

yards in the country and to munition making which requires very precise work and which was carried out in many of the railway workshops and assembly plants. In the general engineering and electrical engineering sections, the skilled and semi-skilled workers show the same aptitude for difficult work as workers of the same categories in engineering concerns in other countries. In this respect, we would like to draw particular attention to the level of skill in large-scale concerns like the Tatas and Bhadravati. To sum up, considering that in this country hours of work are longer, rest pauses fewer, facilities for apprenticeship and training rarer, standards of nutrition and welfare amenities for poorer and the level of wages much lower than in other countries, the so-called inefficiency cannot be attributed to any lack of native intelligence or aptitude on the part of workers.

Apprenticeship and Training.

One of the basic factors affecting not only the position of labour but also that of industries in India is the extreme lack of facilities for training of workers. In Western countries, vocational training is regarded as one of the main planks of an educational programme. Unfortunately, in this country, our educational traditions, as pointed out by a large number of educational experts, have been mainly literary. World War I brought out this factor prominently and the Industrial Commission made strong recommendations for training facilities. The Abbot-Wood Report and subsequently the Sargent Report have both dealt with this question thoroughly and we do not wish to reiterate their general conclusions. We may, however, point out that no amount of tinkering with the problem of vocational training can be a substitute for planned action in this regard. By planned action we mean a co-ordinated and country-wide effort on the part of educational bodies. Reference may here be made to the Russian experiment under which hundreds of thousands of workers were given technical courses ranging from six months to a year as a basic need of industry. This experiment is worth being studied and followed in this country whose problems are in many ways similar to those of Russia. Apart from this basic minimum of vocational training, there should be specialised institutions for provision of higher training in particular trades. We are well aware of the efforts of some of the private institutions as well as of Provincial and State Governments and the Government of India in this respect. In particular, mention may be made of the Bevin Scheme of His Majesty's Government and the Technical Training Scheme under the Labour Deparment of the Government of India, as also of the training facilities which are now being given jointly by the Planning and Development Department and the Education Department of the Government of India. Apart from this, some of the railways and some individual concerns such as the Tatas, the Tinplate Co. of India, the Assam Oil Co., etc., have also provided training facilities for their own workmen under apprenticeship schemes or otherwise.

So far as we are aware, there is no scheme of apprenticeship for the bulk of industrial workers in this country, and the usual method of imparting training in large-scale factories is to recruit raw youths and put them on to the least skilled occupation in a factory such as that of a doffer boy in a cotton mill. In some cases, relatives of the workpeople are preferred for work and are allowed to assist them on a nominal wage. Obviously, this is a most unsatisfactory procedure to follow. In this

connection we may quote the following remarks of Mr. Harold Butler, a former Director of the International Labour Office. "Without a foundation of general educatioon among the masses the training of the higher personnel must be expensive and difficult while the efficiency of rank and file, to whom promotion is often unattainable, must remain at an unduly low lvel."[1]

The question of apprenticeship has to be considered from two points of view: firstly, the needs of the industry, and, secondly, the career of individual. The needs of industry in regard to technical personnel are undoubted. At the same time, even when this was the case, many technically trained persons before the War had to remain unemployed for long periods of time, and cases are within our experience where people who had received high technical training had failed to get a suitable job and had to accept something else where their training was absolutely wasted. Moreover, any scheme of apprenticeship which is devised must provide for the career of the individual. Most of the existing apprenticeship schemes in this country give no promise of jobs after completion of training.

The State and Employers' and Workers' Organisations in relation to Labour

It is obvious that labour conditions in a country are greatly influenced by the activities of the State including the general community, employers and by what the workers themselves are able to do for themselves. We may briefly review here the position in regard to all these matters during the last few years. We have already pointed out that although so far as labour legislation is concerned, there has been considerable progress since the date of the publication of the Royal Commission's Report, this progress has been slow and halting and we have, therefore, suggested that we should have in this country a Labour Code for regulating the conditions of work and wages of industrial labour. The division of responsibility between the Central Government and the Provincial Governments in regard to labour matters as a result of the Indian Constitution of 1935 has not been without its shortcomings. Vested interests are still very strong and the Central Government, not completely representative of the people, has naturally been cautious,—we might even say over-cautious—in initiating and carrying through the legislature many urgent and necessary reforms.

Employers in this country while they have been showing a much greater internal organization for safeguarding their interests have not so far, probably with the exception of the Bombay Millowners' Association, shown much enthusiasm for having a properly planned and well coordinated labour policy. Recently, the Jute Mills Association, Bengal, has been thinking in terms of such a policy, but has more or less concentrated on the regulation of hours of work mainly from the point of view of production and internal competition. It has, however, interested itself in labour welfare, details of which have already been given. Similarly the cement industry is doing a great deal by way of labour welfare, but, here again, any plan for securing the stability and contentment of labour is lacking. The plantation industry still remains unaffected by the march of time and countinues its antiquated wage structure and relationships

[1] *Problems of Industry in the East*, p. 25.

with the employees. The last 15 years have, however, shown a certain amount of zeal on the part of individual employers, particularly in the South, to have a labour policy and the results achieved have been admirable. This is so particularly in the town of Madura.

When the Royal Commission arrived in India, there was a split in the Trade Union Congress, and even today labour in India is as divided as it was before. The two main groups of labour organisations fall under the All-India Trade Union Congress and the Indian Federation of Labour, and there are also some important unattached labour association. On the whole and with the exception of a very few unions, it has to be admitted that the workers' organisations are in a very weak position and have not been able to help ameliorating labour's conditions of work and wages.

IV. Labour and the Constitution.

One great obstacle in the path of securing uniform policy and action in respect of labour matters is the distribution of legislative and administrative powers between the Centre and the Provinces under the Government of India Act, 1935. If we refer to the Legislative Lists in Schedule III to the Act, it will be noticed that a majority of labour questions have been relegated to Concurrent List, Part II. The position as regards the Concurrent List, is that legislation on matters relating to Labour and Social Security can be both Central and Provincial, subject only to the reservation that the Government of India may issue *directions* to the Provinces so as to secure co-ordination and uniformity. This scheme of distribution of powers, however, has resulted in a complete lack of uniformity, both in regard to policy and action, as is obvious from the large mass of evidence presented in the *Ad Hoc* Reports of the Committee. We may draw attention to two or three important instances in this connection. Under the Factories Act, 1934, factory inspection in the Provinces has been entrusted to Provincial authorities, and this is not inconsistent with the constitutional position. As a matter of fact, however, the standards of inspection in different Provinces vary immensely. We do not wish to single out one Province or another either for praise or for blame, but we may generally state that the standards in most Provinces are poor, and, moreover, even the strength of the inspectorates is miserably small. We are sure that if factory inspection were a Central responsibility, this state of affairs could not have arisen. To take another example, under most Central Acts, the rule-making power is delegated to the Provinces, as this is regarded as mainly a local administrative matter. The important principle of constitutional law, which is jealously guarded in countries like Britain, where any deviations or lapses from it are strongly objected to,[1] is that the intentions of the legislature should not be defeated by the rule-making power delegated to a subordinate authority which may or may not carry out such intentions. A comparison of the rules made by Provincial Governments under the Factories Act in pursuance of the powers delegated to them clearly shows that many of the Provinces have not implemented the intentions of the legislature. This has led to a wide disparity in matters such as the provision of shelters, creches, etc. Instances can be multiplied, but we may here mention the parallel case of collection of statistics under the Industrial Statistics Act, 1942. The collection of statistics in regard to labour matters is a subject falling mainly under the Concurrent List, Part II. Owing to this, provincial governments have to be cajoled into

[1] Cf., for example, Lord Hewart's *The New Despotism*.

taking action on the Act and, as a consequence, the Industrial Statistics Act has become almost a dead letter. We do not wish to labour this point further, but may state categorically that unless the distribution of powers under the Constitution is suitably revised, so far as Labour and Social Security are concerned, future progress in this regard is bound to be seriously hampered.

Similar problems have arisen in other countries such as U. S. A., Canada and Australia. The experience of these three countries is valuable to us, in view of the fact that all of them have federal constitutions and provide an illustration of the manner in which a constitution drafted under different circumstances can become a strait-jacket. In particular attention may be drawn to Canada, where a Royal Commission was appointed to consider the entire problem of Dominion-Provincial relations. The Commission in its Report (known as the Rowell-Sirois Report) in 1940. The main conclusions of the Report in regard to labour matters have been summarisad by Sir Atul Chatterjee in an article on "Federalism and Labour Legislation in India" in the International Labour Review, April-May 1944, as follows:—

"The Commission observed that the present division of legislative power under the Constitution threw the main burdan of modern social legislation upon the provinces, but that the support of such legislation had become one of the heaviest financial charges which the Governments were obliged to meet. In accordance with the recommendation of the Commission, the Dominion was given jurisdiction (by an amendment made by the British Parliament to the British North America Act) to establish a scheme on unemployment insurance and promptly exercised such jurisdiction. The Commission further suggested adjustment of Dominion-Provincial relations in regard to contributory pensions and health insurance and workmen's compensation. It also recommended an extension of Dominion jurisdiction in three respects: (a) basic standards of minimum wages, maximum hours, and the age for admission to employment; (b) industrial disputes; and (c) the implementation of international labour Conventions."

The present political situation in the country being highly uncertain and altogether in a state of flux, we find it difficult to make concrete suggestions regarding labour in relation to the constitution. Broadly speaking, however, we feel that the power of the Central Government both in regard to legislation and administration should be unfettered and that not only should the centre pass Acts of an All-India character, but that it should also administer them so as to ensure maximum compliance with the provisions of law. On the other hand, it may be possible for the Provinces to pass laws of their own and enforce them provided that they are not repugnant to central laws already enacted. In other words, the provincial authority, for legislation and administration will be limited to such matters as have not already been taken cognizance of by the Centre and we are sure that there will be a fair margin for the Provinces to exploit for this purpose. In any case, the chaos in this connection requires to be ended.

As stated already, we have been greatly struck by the diversities, which exist between industry and industry, between one Province and

another, and between British India and the Indian States, in relation to labour conditions. It seems to us incomprehensible why the same industry competiting in more or less the same markets and enjoying more or less the same conditions and suffering from more or less the same disabilities should not be able to give more or less uniform conditions of work and wages to its employees. It would be recognised that the very humane problem of labour is one which cannot be treated compartmentally and that, like customs, tariffs, planning, food, etc., has to be tackled on a national basis. The world has travelled very far since 1935 and the atmosphere has been surcharged with new ideas in regard to problems of labour and social security. In view of this, constitutional and legal models of yesterday may have to be revised and readapted to the changed conditions and needs. The new outlook demands a new approach to the entire problem of labour legislation and labour administration. No doubt, during the last two or three decades, India has made considerable progress in the field of legislation. However, it is clear that the progress has been piecemeal and haphazard. The time has now arrived to take stock of things and to launch upon a bolder and a more comprehensive labour policy, and, to this end, to consolidate and extend the labour laws into a Labour Code applicable to the working classes generally, and provide minimum standards of legal protection for ensuring their economic stability and social well-being.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It is our pleasant duty to acknowledge the generous assistance and hospitality which we received from officials and non-officials throughout the course of our work. We wish in particular to record our grateful appeciation of the help which we received from Provincial Governments, State Authorities, Labour Commissioners (and particularly the Labour Commissioner, Bengal), Directors of Industries, Chief Inspectors of Factories, Port authorities, local bodies, employers' and workers' associations, managements of the units surveyed and all others who rendered help in the collection of the data presented in this report and in the *ad hoc* reports published separately.

2. The Committee are thankful to Mr. Teja Singh Sahni, Secretary for having managed the Committee's office work with diligence and industriousness, for assisting them in preparing some of the Appendices to the Report, and for supervising the printing of *ad hoc* survey Reports. We are also thankful to Mr. N. K. Bhojwani, our Statistician, for sifting a mass of statistical material collected during our surveys and preparing some tables for the *ad hoc* reports.

D. V. REGE, *Chairman*
S. R. DESHPANDE,
AHMAD MUKHTAR,
B. P. *ADARKAR*, } *Members*

Teja Singh Sahni, *Secretary*.

5th March, 1946,
NEW DELHI.

APPENDIX I

LABOUR INVESTIGATION COMMITTEE

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR, GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

No. LIC-36, Simla, the 27th May 1944

MEMORANDUM

The Labour Investigation Committee has been appointed by the Government of India by Resolution No. L4012, dated the 12th February 1944, which is as follows:—

"The Tripartite Labour Conference, at its meeting in September 1943, unanimously passed the following resolution.

'This Tripartite Labour Conference recommends that, with a view to provide adequate materials on which to plan a policy of social security for labour, the Central Government in co-operation with the Governments of Provinces of British India, Indian States and the Chamber of Princes should immediately se up machinery to investigate questions of wages and earnings, employment and housing and social conditions generally, and that as soon as possible after receipt of the required statistics and other data, the Central Government should appoint a mixed Committee to formulate plans of social security'.

In pursuance of this resolution and in order that information may be collected bearing upon various aspects of social security, so as to enable the Planning Committee subsequently to be set up to draw up a programme of social security for labour in India, the Governor-General-in-Council is pleased to appoint a Committee of Enquiry to be known as Labour Investigation Committee. The Committee will be composed off:

(1) Mr. D. V. Rege, I.C.S., Chairman,
(2) Mr. S. R. Deshpande, M.B.E.,
(3) Dr. Ahmad Mukhtar,
(4) Mr. B. P. Adarkar,

} Members.

and its terms of reference will be as follows:—

(a) To collect data relating *inter alia* to wages and earnings, employment, housing and social conditions of labour and in particular of industrial labour in India, and

(b) to investigate and report *inter alia* on the following matters:—
(1) the risks which bring about insecurity,
(2) the needs of labour, by various classes, to meet such risks,
(3) the methods most suitable for meeting such risks, and
(4) housing and factory conditions."

With a view to collecting factual and statistical data and obtaining the views of Governments, employers' and workers' associations and other institutions and persons, the accompanying General Questionnaire is issued. In replying to it, it is not necessary to answer all questions. The questionnaire has been divided into Sections; you may select such Sections or questions as may be of interest to you and in regard to which you are in a position to supply useful information. You may also submit special memoranda on any particular topic or topics covered by the terms of reference.

Replies to the Questionnaire, together with Memoranda, if any, may kindly be sent in typescript (five copies) as early as possible and in any case *not later than the* 31*st July* 1944 addressed to the Chairman, Labour Investigation Committee, Council Chamber, Simla.

You may also kindly indicate whether you would be prepared to tender oral evidence, if required by the Committee to do so.

In addition to the General Questionnaire, the Committee propose to issue a few special questionnaires in regard to industries which cannot be conveniently covered by this Questionnaire. The Committee also propose to collect information through Sample and *Ad Hoc* Surveys to be conducted in various industrial centres. In this connection, special Investigators may be approaching your Government|Association|Concern|you, on behalf of the Committee. You are earnestly requested to render all possible assistance and co-operation to them in obtaining reliable information.

D. V. REGE,
Chairman,
Labour Investigation Committee.

To

GENERAL QUESTIONNAIRE.

SECTION I—PRELIMINARY.

1. Are you aware of any survey of labour conditions made in your Province or State by any public or private body or individual or of any printed material bearing upon labour conditions? If so, kindly give the name of the publication and the full address of the author and the source from which copies could be obtained.

2. What legislative measures for the regulation of labour conditions are, in your opinion, of fundamental importance as a condition precedent to the formulation of a Social Security programme? In what respects, if any, does the existing legal administrative structure require to be improved?

3. What are the various Labour Acts in force in your Province or State?

SECTION II—EXISTING LABOUR LEGISLATION.

(A) *Factories Act.*

4. Are the provisions of the Factories Act and Rules made thereunder being strictly enforced? If not, please state the extent to which evasion or violation is taking place in respect of any provisions and the methods or means of such evasion or violation. What machinery exists for enforcing the Act? Is the Inspectorate adequate?

5. State the nature and extent of evils that exist in establishments which are not subject to the Factories Act. Would you advocate the extension of any part or the whole of the Act to such establishments, or would you prefer the enactment of a separate measure to deal with them? Can any such legislative measure be successfully enforced?

6. Apart from exemptions granted as a war-time measure, have you any observations to make on the exemptions granted by Governments in respect of certain provisions of the Factories Act?

7. Have you any suggestions to make for improving the Factories Act or its administrative machinery? If so, please mention them, giving reasons.

(B) *Payment of Wages Act.*

8. Are the provisions of the Payment of Wages Act and Rules made thereunder being strictly enforced? If not, please state the extent to which evasion or violation is taken place in respect of any provisions and the methods or means of such evasion or violation. Are there any inherent difficulties in the enforcement of the Act?

9. In particular, how does the Act work in relation to (a) contract labour, (b) *badli* labour.

10. Do you think that the wage limit prescribed by the Act in Section 1 (6) requires to be altered?

11. Would you advocate the extension of the Payment of Wages Act to any industry not at present covered by it, and, if so, why?

12. If you are not satisfied with the present working of the Act, what inprovements in the Act or Rules or in the administrative machinery would you suggest?

13. Are any deductions from the earnings of the workers made by the employer which are not capable of being prevented by the existing provisions of the Act or Rules?

(C) *Workmen's Compensation Act.*

14. Are you satisfied with the working of the Workmen's Compensation Act? If not, please state how it can be improved?

15. What difficulties are experienced by different types of workers (contract, *badli*, etc.) in your Province or State, in securing compensation? Is part payment made before the claim is finally settled? Are they aware of their own rights under the Act? If not, are any steps being taken to educate them in this regard?

16. (1) What procedure is followed by you for—

(a) reporting accidents occurring in your concern?
(b) payment of compensation when it is due?

(2) Are there any complaints on the part of operatives regarding delays in payment of compensation?

17. What agencies are available to render legal or other assistance to workers in securing compensation due to them?

18. To what extent do employers insure against accidents with insurance companies? Are you in favour of *compulsory* insurance by all employers against accidents with insurance companies?

19. Are you in favour of extending Schedule III of the Act which enumerates the occupational diseases entitling workers to compensation? In this connection, state as to which of the occupational diseases mentioned in *Appendix* I to this Questionnaire are, to your knowledge, prevalent in your Province, State, industry or concern.

20. Have you any suggestions to make regarding (a) scale of compensation, (b) conditions governing grant of compensation, (c) machinery of administration, (d) extension of the Act to industries not covered by it at present, (e) any other matters.

21. What medical assistance is available to the injured worker in your establishment? Is it free? What are the qualifications of the medical officer-in-charge?

(D) *Maternity Benefit Act.*

22. Apart from any legislative enactment, is maternity benefit provided, under any special agreement between employers and workers, or at the discretion of the management?

23. Where a Maternity Benefit Act is applicable, has it resulted in a dimunition of the employment of women workers?

24. How successful has the Act been in its intentions? Do women workers experience difficulties in obtaining benefit? If so, what are they?

25. Are female workers discharged or threatened with discharge by employers in order to avoid payment under the Act?

26. Are the cash benefits payable and the period for which they are payable adequate? How is the payment made?

27. Are there any arrangements in your concern for the treatment of maternity cases including pre-natal and pos-natal care? Are these arrangements available to your workers' wives and other female dependants not working in your concern?

28. What improvements, if any, in the Act would you suggest?

Section III—Wages and Earnings.

29. What are the basic wage rates for different types of workers, for time and piece work respectively, in your industry or establishment? Can you supply information regarding the changes that have taken place in these rates since 1938? What changes, in particular, have taken place since the commencement of the war?

30. Please describe the principles underlying the fixation of basic wages of the worker in your establishment or industry.

31. In addition to the basic wages, what allowances, bonuses, etc., are paid? Please give full details stating which of these are temporary and which permanent in nature and on what conditions such allowances or bonuses are given. Are any attempts made to evade payment of these allowances and bonuses?

32. Are there any allowances or bonuses which have owing to lapse of time become part and parcel of the basic wages and are not subject to fluctuation from time to time? If so, give full particulars.

33. In addition to wages in cash, are there any payments in kind made to or any concessions or benefits conferred upon the worker by the employer at his discretion or otherwise?

34. How do you calulate overtime pay in the case of time work, piece work, or combination of time and piece work, Do you maintain any registers for recording overtime pay? Are they available to the forkers or their representatives for inspection?

35. (a) Are wages paid directly to the worker or through agents such as jobbers, mistries, mukkaddams, sardars or contractors?

(b) How do wages paid by your contractors compare with those paid by you for similar work in your establishment?

36. Are workers dismissed and re-employed on lower scales of pay because permissible deductions under the Payment of Wages Act are not considered adequate?

37. (a) In the same department and occupation and for the same type of work, do differential rates of wages exist?

(b) Are different wage rates paid to permanent and temporary workers and to men and women doing the same or similar work?

38. What are the periods of wage payment in your Province, State or establishment? Are you in favour of weekly, fortnightly or monthly payment of wages? What is the time elapsing between the day on which wages become due and the day of actual payment?

39. Have any efforts been made to standarise the wage rates? If so, kindly supply full details of the scheme evolved. What, in your, view, are the main difficulties in standardising the wage rates?

40. (a) What attempts at rationalization by way of efficiency schemes have been made in your industry? Please give details.

(b) What are the effects of such schemes on
(i) total employment in the concern.
(ii) employment in particular occupations,
(iii) wage rates,
(iv) earnings,
(v) production, and
(vi) working conditions, especially strain and fatigue.

(c) In what proportion are the gains resulting from these schemes passed on to workers?

SECTION IV—EMPLOYMENT.

41. State the total number of workers employed by you in your establishment on the 1st January, 1939, and 1st January, 1944, or at least on the latter date, classified as under:—

(a) Supervisory staff,
(b) Clerks,
(c) Workers employed and paid directly by establishment (Men, women and children),
(d) Workers employed by contractors and paid by establishment (Men, women and children).
(e) Workers employed as well as paid by contractors (Men, women and children).

42. If you have any statistical information regarding the length of service of operatives in your concern, please give it in the following form:

those between 0 and 1 year of service,

those between 1 and 5 years of service,

those between 5 and 10 years of service, and

those over 10 years of service.

43. Are there any Standing Orders, Rules or agreements prevalent in your Province, State or concern, governing the day-to-day relationship between employer and worker? If so, please supply a copy.

44. Are your workers classified as permanent, temporary, *badli* or casual? Give the percentage in each category and explain the rights and privileges of each category of workers. How are temporary, *badli* and casual workers put on the permanent list, if at all? Have you any definite rules? If so, please supply copies of the same.

45. Do you recruit your labour direct? If not, what is the agency for recruitment of labour? To what extent is labour recruited through jobbers, contractors and sub-contractors, or any other agency? Explain your recruitment system fully and give your reasons for your preference for it over other alteratives. If the present system of recruitment is defective, would you advocate the establishment of employment exchanges?

46. Do you maintain service or registration cards for all or some of your workers? If so, please send a specimen copy.

47. State the labour turnover in your establishment for the years 1938 and 1943, or any recent years in the tabulated form below:—

Average daily number of workers employed during the month or year.	Total number of workers who left during the month or year.	
	Permanent.	Temporary.

48. Point out the reasons for the labour turnover and suggest measures for reducing it. Is the turnover greater during some months than in others? If so, why?

49. Do you maintain figures of absenteeism? If so, on what basis is absenteeism calculated? Please supply figures of absenteeism in your establishment during the years 1938 and 1943. Is absenteeism greater in night shifts than in day shifts? Is it greater in some months than in others? Is it greater immediately after the pay day or on festival days? Discuss the various causes of absenteeism and the remedies, necessary for its reduction.

50. Have you any provision for the training of apprentices? How many of them have had preliminary education? Please supply a copy of the rules, if any, and state the following particulars:—

(a) Total number of apprentices engaged during the period 1938-43.

(b) Total number of those who qualified and are now working in your establishment.

(c) Total number of those who left after qualifying themselves.

(d) Total number of those who could not or did not qualify.

51. Do you have any system of incremental or graded promotion in your establishment? If so, please describe it. Do you think that such a system is in the interests of industry?

52. Do you give any holidays with pay to workers, skilled and unskilled? If so, please supply details.

53. Have you any system of leave with or without pay for your workers? What is the proportion of workers who are entitled to such leave? If you have any leave rules, please supply a copy.

54. Are workers suspended or sent on compulsory or forced leave, as a disciplinary measure? If so, please give the number of such cases in 1943.

55. (a) Do you impose fines as a disciplinary measure? How is the fines fund administered and utilized? Please state the specific items and the account of money spent on each as also the outstanding balance in the fund on 1-1-1944.

(b) Are you satisfied with the present administration and utilization of the fund. If not, what improvements would you suggest?

56. Have you a Labour Officer to enquire into the grievances of workers? If not, have you any machinery for enquiring into this matter and into complaints against the supervisory staff?

57. Is any class of workers eligible to special benefits in regard to recruitment, starting pay, promotion, training or other matters? If so, please give details and also the reasons therefor.

SECTION V—WORKING CONDITIONS.

Note.—Wherever possible, please supply informaion relating to the pre-war and present day conditions.

58. What are your hours of work? State under the following heads:—

(a) normal, i.e., as determined by custom, agreement, or law; (b) actual, i.e., including overtime; (c) spreadover, i.e., the relation between hours worked and hours during which worker is on call; and (d) days worked per week.

59. What have been the effects of restriction of working hours as enforced by the Factories Act on (a) the efficiency of the workers, and (b) on production. Will a further reduction of working hours result in increasing, maintaining or decreaasing the present production?

60. How many and what kinds of shifts (single, double, multiple, or overlapping) do you work? Specify the hours of work, the rest intervals and the weekly days of rest for each shift of workers. If you work overlapping shifts, what are your special reasons for doing so?

61. Are you in favour of working night shifts in normal times? What are the effects of night shift working on

(a) the health of the workers,

(b) production.

62. If your establishment is a continuous-process factory, what arrangements are made for rest days and at what intervals are these rest days given?

63. Have you taken any special measures for prevention of accidents, or for protecting the worker from dust, heat, glare, etc., apart from those prescribed by the Factories Act?

64. Is an adequate number of (a) latrines and (b) urinals provided for males and females separately? Describe their structure and their proportion to the total number of workers. Are they provided with doors.

65. Is the arrangement for drinking water adequate? Is cool water supplied during summer? Are any other drinks supplied free of charge?

66. Are any shelters provided for workers for taking meals or for use during intervals of rest? If so, are separate shelters provided for males females?

SECTION VI—HOUSING.

67. Is there any housing scheme for workers provided in your area or industrial centre by the State, public bodies or by the employer? What proportion of the workers is covered by it? Please give full details of the scheme, and supply any printed material, photographs, or plans relating thereto, if possible.

68. State the following particulars:—

(a) The nature of accommodation, whether one-room, two-room, etc., tenements, whether with or without verandah, whether in lines, back-to-back or independent;

(b) Measurement of the accommodation, and the total number of persons (adult males, adult females and children under 10) staying there;

(c) the rent charged for each type of accommodation;

(d) the structure of the tenement, the material used, and the type of floors (whether cemented, brickpaved or *kacha*);
(e) structure, dimensions and privacy in the case of bath rooms, if any? Are separate bath-rooms provided for females?
(f) provision for ventilation, lighting, water-supply, etc.;
(g) number of lavatories and urinals provided and their proportion to the number of people living in the quarters, their distance from the quarters, whether separate for men and women, etc.

69. How far are the workmen's quarters situated from their place of work? Is any conveyance provided for the workers to and fro? What are the charges, if any, for this?

70. Are there any market, post-office and other similar convenience available near the quarters?

71. How is allotment made? How do you deal with the problems of (a) sub-letting, (b) occupation of quarters by workers in the employ of others, (c) eviction?

72. Are there any facilities for workers to build their own houses? Have you any land for workers to build houses at their own cost? Have you ever encouraged them to build houses on a long lease? Have the workers started any co-operative society of their own and, if so, with what results?

73. How far have the employers availed themselves of the Land Acquisition Act to acquire land compulsorily to house their labour?

74. To what extent do workers live in *bastis, ahatas, chawls,* etc., owned by private landlords, *sardars* or contractors? Please describe the conditions in some of them.

75. To what extent do workers live in their own houses whether built or purchased by them? How do these houses compare with those provided by other agencies?

76. What is your housing policy in respect of labour? Have you any programme for building quarters for them in the near future? If so, please describe your plans. In allotting accommodation, are the worker's caste, creed, race or affiliation to a trade union, etc., taken into consideration? Do the workers enjoy ordinary rights of tenancy in these houses?

77. What, in your opinion, should be the housing policy of the country in respect of labour? Who should be held responsible for provision of housing—Government, employers, municipalities or workers themselves organized on co-operative lines or any combination of them?

78. Have you any special views on the question of financing housing schemes for industrial workers?

79. What is the minimum amount of housing accommodation which a worker, in your opinion, should have?

Section VII—Migration.

80. What proportion of the labour force in your area or concern is permanently settled and what proportion is migratory.

81. Mention the areas from which the workers are chiefly drawn? Do the workers who come from outside return to their villages occasionally or only during holidays?

82. Is there any seasonal migration of the workers for agricultural operations, etc?

83. Do you think that a stabilised labour force is desirable in the interests of industry. If so, what steps should be taken to achieve this object?

84. Is there much migration of workers between factories in the same or different areas?

Section VIII—Indebtedness.

85. Are the workers in your Province, State, area or establishment indebted? If so, can you give some idea of the extent of indebtedness?

86. What are the predominant causes of indebtedness?

87. Who are the moneylenders and what rates of interest do they charge? What are their methods of lending and recovering the principal?

88. Have you got any law relating to indebtedness of industrial workers? If so, please state how far it as helped them.

89. What remedies have been devised by either Governments or employers or workers themselves for relief, prevention and reduction of indebtedness? How far have they been successful? What further remedies have you to suggest, if any?

Section IX—Age and Mortality Statistics.

90. Do you maintain any record of age statistics. If so, please supply information in the following form:

Those who have completed (*a*) but not completed (*b*).	No. of Male workers.	No. of Female workers.	Total
(a)	(b)		
12	15		
15	17		
17	20		
20	25		
25	30		
30	35		
35	40		
40	45		
45	50		
50	55		
55	60		
Above 60			
Total.			

91. What is the most common age at which workers enter employment in your establishment or area? At what age do they mostly retire from employment? Do many workers have to work in spite of old age or invalidity?

92. Have you collected any figures showing the mortality and expectation of life of workers in your industry, factory or area? If so, please supply the same.

93. What is the extent of reliability of the age records maintained by you? When doctors certify the age of children employed in your area, is there a tendency to overestimate the age?

SECTION X—WELFARE ACTIVITIES.

94. Please describe the nature and extent of welfare work amongst workers done in your Province, State, area or establishment by Government, employers or other agencies. The infomation may kindly be supplied under the following heads:—

(a) Canteens—their working, kind of food provided, percentage of workers who benefit, their degree of popularity, etc.

(b) *Creches*—Number of children provided for, the supervisory staff employed and their qualifications. What attempts have been made to popularise the *creche* among women workers?

(c) Entertainment—cinema shows, radio sets, sports, etc.

(d) Medical attendance in factories and houses, provision of maternity and child welfare, etc.

(e) Washing and bathing facilities.

(f) Any other facilities.

95. What are the effects, of such welfare work on the worker. his attendance at factory, his standard of life and industrial efficiency, his habits and absenteeism?

96. What are the facilitits available for (a) education of the workers' children, (b) education of adult workers and (c) industrial and vocational training? What are the practical results achieved therefrom?

97. Have you any statistical information about literacy among industrial workers? If so, please supply it.

SECTION XI—SOCIAL SECURITY MEASURES.

98. What, in your view, are the various risks of insecurity arising in the case of industrial labour, against which provision should be made in a social security programme?

99. What particular classes of labour are exposed to such risks and to what extent?

100. Which of the various security measures, such as health insurance, unemployment insurance, invalidity, pensions, old age pensions, widows' and orphans' pensions, industrial life insurance,, maternity insurance, etc., do you consider of paramount importance in the case of Indian workers? Which of them need prior attention? Which of them do you regard within the range of practicability?

101. What special difficulties do you foresee in the way of the introduction of social security measures for workers in India? How would you overcome those difficulties?

102. Do you consider that a progremme of social security for industrial workers in India is unattainable on grounds of finance?

103. To what extent does insecurity of employment prevail? What are its causes? What measures would you suggest for remedying it?

104. Give, if possible, an estimate of labour and staff reductions likely to take place in your establishment immediately following the end of the present war.

105. To what extent can the displaced labour be absorbed in alternative occupations?

106. What, in your view, should be the features of a scheme of Unemployment Insurance designed for workers who are already employed and who may later be thrown out of employment? What ancillary measures, if any, would you suggest?

107. Are you in favour of making (a) compensation for accident or occupational disease, (b) maternity benefit as part of Social Insurance programme instead of continuing them as a liability on the employer? Please give reasons for your views.

108. Is there a Provident Fund, Gratuity Fund or Pensions Fund for skilled and/or unskilled workers in your establishment? If so, kindly supply a copy of the Rules.

109. In particular, state whether the Fund is registered, when it was started, whether it is open to all workers or only to some, what are the respective contributions of employer and workers, the number of workers covered, the amount of the fund, investments made, whether the accumulation to the credit of worker is attachable or alienable under any circumstances, etc.

110. Consider the feasibility of Old Age Pensions, Industrial Life Insurance, Compulsory Provident Funds, or a combination of any of these, to deal with the problem of provision for the workers' future.

111. Do you think that separate social security programmes are necessary for industrial, semi-industrial and agricultural labour? If so, please make detailed suggestions.

APPENDIX

OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES.

1. Give the number of cases of the diseases in the attached list (shown separately under each disease) which occurred in 1940, 1941 and 1942 in your concern.

2. Where possible, give the total number of workers exposed to the risk of contracting each particular disease.

	Description of Disease.	Description of Process.
1.	Anthrax.	Handling of wool, hair, bristles, hides, and skins.
2.	Lead poisoning or its sequelae.	Any process involving the use of lead or or its preparations or compounds. Handling of lead or its preparation or compounds.
3.	Mercury poisoning or its sequelae.	Any process involving the use of mercury or its preparations or compounds.
4.	Phosphorus poisoning or its sequelae.	Any process involving the use of phosphorus or its preparations or compounds.
5	Arsenic poisoning or its sequelae.	Any process involving the use of arsenic or its preparations or compounds. Handling of arsenic or its preparations or compounds.
6.	Poisoning by nitro-and amidoderivatives of benezene and its homologues (trinitrotoluene, anilin, and others), or the sequelae.	Handling any nitro-or amidoderivative of benezene or any of its homologues, or any process in the manufacture or involving the use thereof.
7.	Poisoning by benezene and its homologues, or the sequelae.	Handling benezen or any of its homologues, or any process in the manufacture or involving the use thereof.
8.	Poisoning by dinitrophenol or its sequelae.	Handling dinitrophenol, or any process in the manufacture or involving the use thereof.
9.	Poisoning by carbon bisulphide or its sequelae.	Any process involving the use of carbon bisulphide or its preparations or compounds.
10.	Poisoning by nitrous fumes or its sequelae.	Any process in which nitrous fumes are evolved.
11.	Chrome ulceration or its sequelae.	Any process involving the use of chromic acid, or bichromate of ammonuim, potassium, or sodium, or their preparations.
12.	Compressed air illness or its sequelae.	Any process carried on in compressed air.
13.	Ulceration of the corneal surface of the eye, due to tar, pitch, bitumen, mineral, oil, or paraffin or any compound, product, or residue of any of these substances.	Handling or use of tar, pitch, bitumen, mineral oil, or paraffin, or any compound, product, or residue, of any of these substances.
14.	Epitheliomatous cancer or ulceration of the skin due to tar, pitch, bitumen, mineral oil, or paraffin, or any compound, products, or residue of any of these substances.	Handling or ruse of tar, pitch bitumen, mineral, oil, or paraffin or any compound, product, or residue of of these substances.

15.	Dermatits products by dust or liquids.	
16.	Ulceration of the skin product by dust or liquids.	
17.	The disease known as miner's nystagmus, whether occurring in miners or others, and whether the symptom of oscillation of the eye balls be present or not.	Mining.
18.	Subcutaneous cellulitis of the hand (beat hand).	Mining.
19.	Subcutaneous cellulitis or acute buritis arising at or about the knee (beat knee).	
20.	Subcutaneous cellulitis or acute bursitis over the elbow (beat elbow).	Mining.
21.	Inflammation of the synovial linin of the wrist joint and tendon sheaths.	Mining.
22.	Cataract in glassworkers.	Process in the manufacture of glass involving exporsure to the glare of molten glass.
23	Telegraphic's cramp.	Use of telegarphic instruments.
24.	Writer's camp.	
25.	Cataract caused by exposure to rays from molten or red-hot metal.	Any process normally involving exposure to rays from molten or red-hot metal including reheating and rolling iron in the manufacture of iron or steel,
26.	Twister's cramp caused by twisting of cotton or woollen (including worsted) yarns.	
27.	Manganese poisoing.	Handling of manganese or substances containing manganese.
28.	A localiped new growth of the skin, papillomatous or keratotic, due to mineral oil.	Cotton spinning by means of self-acting mules.

APPENDIX I.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR *AD HOC* SURVEYS.

PART I.

Name of concern.....

Name of Proprietor or Managing Agent.....

Date of Establishment.....

Location.....

District.....

Province.....

A. EMPLOYMENT.

1. State the average daily number of workers (other than the clerical staff) employed in August 1939 and in January 1944, or at date of enquiry as follows:—

(*a*) Total number of workers.....

(*b*) Number of piece-rate workers.....

(*c*) Number of time-rate or salaried workers.....

	Men.		Women		Children.	
	Aug. 1939.	Jan. 1944.	Aug. 1939.	Jan. 1944.	Aug. 1939.	Jan. 1944.
(*i*) Employed and paid directly						
(*ii*) Employed and paid through contractors						
(*iii*) Employed through contractors but paid directly						

2. If you have any statistical information regarding the length of service of operatives in your concern, please give it in the following form:—

Those between 0 & 1 year of service,

Those between 1 & 5 years of service,

Those between 5 & 10 years of service, and

Those over 10 years of service.

3. Are your workers classified as permanent and temporary? Give the percentage in each category and describe the privileges of each type of workers.

4. State the system of apprpenticeship for ordinary and supervisory posts and terms, if any.

Is the apprenticeship period counted towards total service?

5. Is there any system of graded or time-scale promotion? If so, give details.

6. State the labour turnover in your concern for the years 1939 and 1943 or any recent years in the form below:—

Average daily number of workers employed during the month or year.	Total number of workers who left during the month or year.					
	Permanent.			Temporary.		
	Retirement.	Dismissal.	Voluntary.	Retirement.	Dismissal.	Voluntary

What are the reasons for the labour turnover, if any? Suggest measures for reducing it.

7. Supply figures of absenteeism in your concern for the years 1939 and 1943. What are the causes of absenteeism and how would you reduce it?

8. Are there any Standing Orders governing the relationships of employers and employees? Please supply a copy of the same, if possible.

9. (*a*) How do you recruit labour? Explain the system of recruitment fully.

(*b*) Have you a Labour Officer to enquire into the grievances of workers? If not, what other machinary have you set up for this purpose?

B. Wages and Earnings.

10. What are the wage-rates for different types of workers? What changes have occurred in basic wages, salaried and piece (exclusive of allowances, etc.) since August 1939?

Does contract labour receive the same rates of wages as labour directly employed in the same or similar occupations?

11. Please describe in brief the principles determining the fixation of your wage rates for all classes of employees.

12. Please give details of dearness and other allowances, bonuses and gratuities paid to workers since the outbreak of the War and state which of these is temporary and which is permanent. Are any conditions attached to the payment of these allowances?

13. Give details of the wages and earnings of workers who have worked the same number of days in the wage period from.....to..... in the form attached at the end of this Questionnaire.

14. How is overtime calculated and paid for? Is overtime work compulsory? Do you maintain any registers for recording overtime? Are these available to the workers or their representatives for inspection?

15. What deductions are made from wages?

16. Is there a Fine Fund? What is the amount outstanding in it and how is it utilised? Who is in charge of its disposal?

17. What are the periods of wage payment for different kinds of workers? How long after the end of the wage-period are wages paid?

18. Are there any regular closed days in the month in your concern? What holidays (other than for festivals, etc.) are given to workers?

C. Working Conditions.

19. How many shifts are worked in your concern? What is the number of hours of work in each shift and the times of commencement and ending? What is the total spread-over, *i.e.*, the relation between hours worked and hours during which workers is on call?

20. If any multiple or overlapping shifts are worked, describe their arrangement.

21. State the conditions of ventilation, lighting (natural and artificial), congestion (*i.e.*, floor area per worker), flooring, protection against heat, etc.

22. Are shelters provided for employees during rest intervals? Give their dimensions, structural details, seating arrangements, etc.

D. Welfare Activities.

23. Give an account of sanitary arrangements, water supply, latrines, urinals, washing and bathing facilities etc. and their distances from the concern. Is cool water supplied in summer?

24. Is there any dispensary or hospital for workers and their families? If so, state the number of cases treated every day, prevalent diseases, qualifications of doctors in charge, their emoluments, etc. What is the system of medicine? Can any of the diseases workers suffer from be called occupational in character? Is there any periodical medical examination of workers?

25. Is any canteen provided or arrangements made for tea, cold drinks, light refreshments, etc.? Who runs them and how are profits, if any, utilised? Describe conditions of contract, if any, and compare sale prices of articles supplied with market prices.

26. Do you maintain a *creche* for the benefit of your women workers?

27. What are the facilities available for the education of adult workers and their children?

28. Is there a grain shop for workers? What are the commodities supplied and how do their prices compare with market prices?

E. Housing Accommodation.

29. Give details of housing provided by the employer with reference to:—

(a) Proportion of workers housed,
(b) Rentals,
(c) Types of houses,
(d) Congestion,
(e) Sub-letting, and
(f) Sanitation and water supply.

30. If workers live in their own houses or in houses provided by private landlords or public bodies, state their condition carefully.

F. Trade Unions and Strikes.

31. Have workers formed any trade union? State membership, monthly subscriptions, etc. Has there been any agreement regarding wages, hours of work, employment, dismissal, etc. Please supply a copy of agreement, if any.

32. Is there any works committee? Give its constitution and an account of its activities.

33. Give details of strikes in your concern during the last fifteen years. What were the causes of such strikes and how were they settled? How far were the demands of the strikers satisfied?

G. Safety Acts, etc.

34. Does the concern come under the Factories Act? If so, are the provisions of the Factories Act complied with? Give dates of visits of Factory Inspectors during the past ten years and extracts from the remarks in the Factory Inspection Book.

35. Are the provisions of the following Acts observed in your concern:—

(1) Electricity Act,
(2) Payment of Wages Act,
(3) Workmen's Compensation Act, and
(4) Maternity Benefit Act.

What action have you taken to acquaint your staff with the provisions of these Acts?

36. Give the number and nature of cases of occupational diseases reported in the last 10 years. Is there any provision of medical facilities for the treatment of occupational diseases?

37. State the number of accidents which occurred in 1943. Was any compensation paid? If so, how much and in how many cases?

H. Indebtedness.

38. Are the workers indebted? Give an idea of the extent of their indebtedness and the causes responsible for the same.

39. What is the usual rate of interest charged from the workers? What remedial measures have been enforced by the Government to reduce this indebtedness? How far have they been successful?

I. General.

40. Please supply a copy of the Provident Fund rules, if any, *especially* in reference to:—

(a) Membership,
(b) Contributions,
(c) Rate of interest,
(d) Investment, and
(e) Conditions of claims on employer's contributions.

41. Give details of pension schemes and gratuities, if any. Please supply a copy of the rules.

WAGE FORM FOR *AD HOC* SURVEYS.

Industry..... Name of Establishment..... Location.....

Information relating to the period from.....to.....

Number of days worked by the cocern during the above period.....

*Number of days to which wage figures below refer.....

*NOTE :—(*i*) Figures of earnings should pertain to workers who have worked the same number of days in the period selected. The per od selected should *preferably* be a complete calendar month and Supervisors should make every effort to obtain information from different establishments for the same month.

(*ii*) 'Average' here means the arithmetical average of the wages, gross earnings and net earnings, respectively, of the largest number of employees in an occupation, selected as having worked for the same number of days.

Name of Occupation.	Number of workers employed in this occupation	Piece or Time.	Basic Wage earned (Excluding overtime).			Gross Earnings including basic wages, overtime, allowances, bonuses, etc.			Net earnings (Gross earnings minus deductions).			Remarks.
			Maximum	Minimum.	Average.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Average.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Average.	
	Men ...	(*a*) Piece										
		(*b*) Time										
	Women ...	(*a*) Piece										
		(*b*) Time.										
	Children	(*a*) Piece										
		(*b*) Time										

Part II.

Sugar Factories.

1. State if the factory is perennial or seasonal.

2. While answering question 1 in Part I of this questionnaire, state separately the number of children below 15 years and adolescents between 15 and 17 years employed in the factory.

3. Does this factory grow any sugarcane on land owned by it, if so, state the number of persons employed by it on land. How many of these obtain employment in the factory during the season?

4. What is the proportion of seasonal workers who are agriculturists?

5. What is the average duration of employment of seasonal workers in the whole year?

6. Is any register of employees maintained? If so, is any preference given to persons who had been in employment in previous seasons?

7. Is any travelling allowance paid to seasonal workers at the commencement or at the termination of working season? State the amount paid and the conditions attached thereto.

8. State the total number of working days in the crushing season. What are the months of active working?

9. If the factory is perennial, state the nature of its products during the out of season months.

10. How are engineers, chemists and other permanent employees kept engaged during the slack season?

11. Is it possible to extend the period of crushing? What are the difficulties in doing so? Can you suggest possible remedies?

12. How are molasses and bagasse disposed of?

Tanneries and Leather goods factories.

1. What is the proportion of seasonal workers who are agriculturists?

2. Describe the arrangements that are made for the disposal of affluent. How often is it drained out in a week? Is it drained out through a *pucca* or a *kachcha* drain? And, is it led into any public drain, river or adjoining area.

Buses and Trams.

Note.—While answering Part I of this Questionnaire, please give figures separately for the Engineering, Transportation, Commercial and Allied Departments.

1. What special effects, if any, have buses and trams on the health of the drivers and conductors?

2. In transport concerns, where shift system does not prevail, state the average number of hours worked by employees on running duties and the 'spread-over' of working hours.

3. Do wages differ according to the size and/or type of vehicles in charge of drivers and conductors or according to routes covered by them? If so, please give details.

4. Do any of the employees earn bonus for 'accident free' driving? Are any penalties imposed on them for unfunctual running? Please give details of bonuses earned and penalties imposed since January 1944.

5. What arrangements are made for intervals of rest and weekly holidays in respect of different classes of workers? Are they working satisfactorily?

6. What boarding and lodging arrangements are available for staff on running duties when out of station?

7. Are any concessional passes, uniforms, etc., provided for the employees?

Printing Presses.

1. Has there been any case of lead poisoning in the press? Give details, if possible, and compensation claims paid during the last ten years. How are cases of suspected lead poisoning treated?

2. Would you consider the gradual loss of eyesight as an occupational disease in the case of *some* of the Press Workers? Give reasons for your views in the matter.

3. Would you suggest a six monthly compulsory medical examination of workers in printing presses?

Carpet factories.

Note.—Question No. 1 in Part I of this questionnaire need not be answered in respect of carpet factories. In its place questions 2 and 3 in this part may be answered.

1. How has the War affected the factory in respect of:—

(*a*) regularity of employment of labour,

(*b*) supply of labour,

(*c*) availability of wool and dyes.

2. State the average daily number of workers. (other than the clerical staff) employed in August 1939 and in January 1944 or date of enquiry as follows:—

(*a*) Number of workers above 17 years of age.
(*b*) Number of workers between 15 and 17 years.
(*c*) Number of workers between 12 and 15 years.
(*d*) Number of workers under 12 years.
(*e*) Total number of piece-rate workers.
(*f*) Total number of time-rate workers.

Note.—Figures for males and females should be given separately in each case.

3. Please state the number of workers employed in the same period in the following form:—

(*a*) Number of workers (of all ages) employed and paid directly by the factory.

(*b*) Number of workers (of all ages) employed and paid by master-weavers.

(c) Number of workers (of all ages) employed by master-weavers but paid by the factory.

(d) Number of workers (of all ages) employed by the factory but paid by the master-weavers.

4. Are there any particular difficulties in the way of direct employment and payment of weavers by the management? Have any attempts been made in this direction? If so, with what results.

5. What are the particular advantages of the system of recruitment and payment of weavers by master-weavers?

6. What is the basis of payment to (*a*) master-weavers, (*b*) weavers employed by master-weavers and (*c*) weavers employed directly? What changes have taken place in these rates since August 1939.

7. What deductions are made from wages? In particular, mention the extent to which deductions are made on account of fines and spoiled material.

8. Are there any workers whose wages are not paid to them by the employers or weaving masters, but to their parents or guardians or any middlemen? If so, what are the reasons for this. Is this system open to any abuse?

9. Is any work done at night? If so, describe the lighting arrangements and hours of night work.

10. Describe the posture in which weaving is done. Do you consider it confortable or injurious to health? Is any improvement possible?

11. Is there any evidence that corporal punishment is meted out sometimes to workers by master-weavers or employers?

12. State in detail the operation of any law, local, provincial or central, that applies to the factory.

13. Is there any evidence to show that some weavers are contracted out by master-weavers against loan of money paid to them or their guardians?

Additional Questions

for

(I) *Mica*, and (II) *Iron Ore.*

1. What are the functions of the recruiting Sirdars? Are you in favour of retaining the system?

2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the system of employing raising contractors? Should the system be continued or abolished?

3. If you have raising contractors, what is the rate per ton or per tub paid to them and the rate per ton or per tub paid by them to the cutters?

4. Are wages paid directly to workers or through gangmen, Sirdars or raising contractors? In the latter case, do they charge any commission and, if so, from whom?

5. How do wages of contract labour compare with the wages of those employed direct?

6. What are the various benefits in kind paid to the worker in addition to his cash wages? If possible, please evaluate them in terms of money?

7. What is the method of calculating the production of the miners for calculating their wages?

8. Are there any complaints in your mine regarding under- or-over-payment for the production of the miners as a result of manipulation of accounts by the staff concerned? If so, what steps have been taken to deal with these complaints?

9. Do you consider that the earnings of the miners are adequate keeping in view the risks and difficulties of their occupation? If not, what measures would you suggest to increase them?

10. What are your views regarding the extension of the Payment of Wages Act to mines?

11. What is the extent of absenteeism among the miners in your mine and how do you account for it? Please suggest ways and means to counteract it.

12. What effects did the stoppage of employment of women in the pre-war years have on:—

(*a*) the mining industry,

(*b*) standard of living of the miners, and

(*c*) female workers.

13. To what extent, if any, are the provisions of the Indian Mines Act disregarded about the employment of children? Are you aware of any breach of the Children (Pledging of Labour) Act in any of the mines?

14. (*a*) What have been the effects of the restriction of working hours, as enforced by the Indian Mines Act on:—

(*i*) the health and efficiency of adult workers and young persons working below ground, and

(*ii*) Production?

(b) Should the upper age limit in the case of young persons prescribed by the Act, *viz.*, 17 be modified?

(c) Will a further reduction of working hours result in increasing, maintaining or decreasing the present production?

15. What is the incidence of Sillicosis, Miner's Nystagmus, Cellulitis and other industrial diseases peculiar to mining in your mine? What steps, if any, have been taken to deal with such diseases?

16. To what extent on the provisions relating to Safety measures laid down in the Indian Mines Act and in the Regulations made thereunder observed in the mines? Are they adequate?

17. What facilities do you provide for training the prescribed number of your workers in First Aid. What is the duration of the course? Do you have refresher courses for workers already trained? Is the equipment for First Aid adequate? Please give details.

18. Have employers made any arrangements above or below ground for the supply of refreshments and cooked food to workers?

19. Is the drink and drug evil rampant among the miners? If so, have you any suggestions for the eradication of the evil?

20. Are the provisions of the Indian Mines Act and Rules made thereunder being strictly enforced? If not, please state the extent to which evasion or violation is taking place in respect of any provisions and the methods or means of such evasion or violation.

21. Have you any suggestions to make for improving the Indian (Mines Act or its administrative machinery with a view to protecting labour or ameliorating its condition? If so, please mention them.

22. Are you in favour of extending the Factories Act to mica-splitting establishments? Please give reasons.

23. How far does "piracy" prevail in the mica mining industry? How far is it carried on by the workers themselves? How far is it due to low wages?

Additional Questions
on
Seedlac and Shellac.

A. *Employment.*

1. If the factory is seasonal what are its months of active working in the year?

For how many days in the year does it work?

2. What are the causes of fluctuations in employment in this industry? What remedies would you propose to stabilise employment in it?

3. If any mechanical power is used state the purposes for which it is used. What is the kind of power in use?

4. What are the possibilities of using better machinery and technique of production in the industry? What effect would this have on employment in the long run?

5. What are the main types of workers engaged in the industry and what are their precise functions?

What is the nature of work done by women and children?

6. Are there any breaches of the Employment of Children Amendment Act of 1939 which prohibits the employment of children below 12 years in the industry?

7. Are there any cases of pledging of children in lieu of payment of debts or otherwise, contrary to the provisions of the Children (Pledging of Labour) Act, 1933?

8. Where work is seasonal, what is the occupation of the workers in the off-season period?

B. *Wages and Earnings.*

9. State whether joint wages are paid to workers in any occupation. What is the basis of payment in such cases and how are wages divided by workers among themselves?

10. Where weight is the basis of payment, is weighment done correctly? What is the usual excess of weight per maund, allowed by the employer in his own favour?

11. How long does it take normally to wash one maund of seed lac and melt one maund of washed lac?

12. What difference does the quality of lac make in the time taken to wash and melt one maund of it?

13. Is any allowance made for quality in determining payment to workers?

C. *Hours and Conditions of Work.*

14. Describe the arrangement of *chulhas, bhattas* or stoves in the factory. What is the number of melting sheds?

How many *bhattas* are there in each shed?

What is the area of each shed?

How many persons work in each shed?

Do women and children work in these sheds?

What is the height of ceiling in melting sheds?

What is the state of ventilation in them?

Describe the type of floor, condition of roofs, lighting and temperature in the factory.

15. How often is the water used for washing lac changed?

Do men, women and children have to stand in water during the process of washing?

Questionnaire for *ad hoc* survey of Port Labour.

Name of Centre.....

Recruitment and Employment

1. A. State the approximate number of workers employed by you in this port in 1939 and since January 1944.

Permanent .. 1939.....1944.....

Casual .. 1939.....-944.....

B. What is your estimate of the number of workers who are immigrant? From what areas do they emigrate?

2. Describe the system of recruitment and emploment of both permanent and casual workers. To what extent is casual labour employed directly? Are there any particular difficulties in the way of direct employment and payment of casual labour?

3. Please describe the various kinds of work on which port workers are employed, and indicate the basis of distinction between skilled and unskillled labour.

4. If casual labour is engaged and paid through the agency of jamadars or sirdars, please point out any particular advantages of such a system?

Is it open to any abuses? In particular is there any evidence of bribery or special commission paid by workers to secure employment?

5. A. What are your minimum daily requirements of labour?

B. To what extent is the number of your permanent employees less than your minimum daily requirements? Is it not possible to maintain a larger permanently employed labour force? If not please state reasons?

6. A. What is the approximate number of persons *normally* seeking employment daily?

B. Can you give an estimate of the number which fails to obtain employment (a) in the busy season, (b) in the slack season?

C. What are the principal causes of fluctuations in employment? Can you suggest measures for reducing such fluctuations?

7. In the employment of casual labour,

(a) Do you or your agents maintain any preference lists of workers by which preference is given to workers employed previously?

(b) Is there a system of registration of such workers?

8. A. It is believed that registration of worgers would be an effective means of controlling new entrants, regularising employment and reducing the excess of suyply to a minimum. Do you agree?

B. Are there any difficulties in the way of maintaining registers and allotting registration or license numbers to casual workers?

9. Can you suggest any other method of decasualisation and equitable distribution of employment?

10. Are there any periods during which a general scarcity of labour is experienced? To what extent is the migratory character of port workers responsible for such scarcity?

11. Are there any particular points in the port area where casual workers collect in expectation of finding employment? How many such points are there and how far are they from one another?

12. A. Is it your experience that excess of labour in some parts of the port co-exists occasionally with scarcity elsewhere?

B. Are there satisfactory means of communication and transport between them so that labour may be called from places where it is in excess supply to where it is required?

C. If not do you think that the existence of such means of communication and transport would increase mobility of labour and reduce unemployment?

13. In case of failure to obtain employment what alternative forms of emloyment are available to casual workers?

14. A. Give an estimate of the average number of days in the month from which casual workers find employment? How does it compare with pre-war conditions?

B. In selecting workers for daily employment do sirdars tend to give preference to younger workers?

15. What is the normal size of a gang of workers? Does it vary from time to time? If so what are the limits of variations?

Who supervises the work of a gang? If the sirdars do they also do manual labour?

Wages and Earnings.

16. What is the basis of payment to (a) labour contractors (b) Gang jemadars (c) Workers.

17. Are wages paid daily, weekly or monthly? Are pay roll maintained? If so who maintains them?

18. Please give rates of daily earnings of different categories of casual workers at present. How do they compare with pre-war rates? Are they paid any dearness allowance? If so how is it calculated and paid? Do workers employed in the Port enjoy any concessions regarding cheap food grains etc. If so, what are these and what would be their monetary equivalent.

Is overtime paid for? At what rate is it paid?

19. Are workers employed on the same work paid the same wages? If not what are the reasons for differential payment? Are terms of payment subject to negotiation in individual cases?

20. What are the rates of weekly or monthly wages of permanent workers including those doing the same work on which casual workers are engaged? How do they compare with pre-war wages?

21. Are permanent workers paid any dearness or other allowances?

22. What are the types of deductions made by Sirdars or contractors from workers' wages? Are such deductions subject to any control?

Conditions of work.

23. How many shifts do you work? What is the number of hours of *work* per shift? What is the normal duration of a shift *including* intervals for rest, meals or stoppage of work for whatever reason? Are shift times fixed? Please give details about the times of commencement and ending of different shifts. What are the hours and shifts when there is continuous work exceeding a period of 24 hours?

24. Is any labour employed for less than a complete shift? If so how are wages paid in such cases?

25. Please give your estimate of the number of years for which port workers are able to work as such? At what age do they generally retire?

26. What are the most prevalent diseases or maladies among port workers? What medical facilities, if any, are available to them?

27. A. How far has the Indian Port Labour Act, 1935, been successful in protecting port workers against accidents arising from loading and unloading of shifts? What safety measures have been adopted?

B. What is the system of investigation of accidents?

28. Are there any special difficulties felt by port workers in obtaining compensation against accidents? In particular consider the position of contract and casual labour?

29. How far from the port do casual workers live? Are they any housing facilities provided by employers?

30. What are the means and cost of transport between workers homes and place of work?

31. To what extent are the provisions of the employment of Children Act 1938 being observed? Have you appointed a Labour Officer? If so what are his functions?

32. In particular what control does he exercise on Sirdars and workers?

Questionnaire on

Non-Gazetted Railway Services (including Engineering, Transportation, Commercial and other Departments but excluding workshop staff).

Name of Railway.....

Head Office.....

Areas covered by the Railway.....

Is it Company-owned and Company-managed or State-owned and State-managed?.....

A. *Railway Administration*

1. State the constitution of the Railway Board and its relation to:—
   (a) State-owned and State-managed Railways.
   (b) State-owned and Company-managed Railways
   (c) Company-owned and Company-managed Railways.

Classify the different railways under these headings and state if the Railway Board can enforce its policy in respect of establishment and labour questions on the Company-owned and Company-managed Railways.

2. Describe the administration of railways owned by Indian States. (For Indian States only).

3. What are the powers of the General Managers or Agents of railways in respect of the non-gazetted staff? Have there been any complaints from the railway staff or from the Central Legislature?

B. *Employment.*

4. State the different categories of employees in the non-gazetted services in the engineering transportation; commercial and other allied departments (e.g. gangmen, pointsmen, signalmen, porters luggage coolies. semi-skilled and skilled workers and all others who do not hold any gazetted post) and the average daily number employed in each category in August 1939 and in January 1944 as follows:—

	Men		Women	
	Aug. 1939	Jan. 1944	Aug. 1939	Jan. 1944
Employed and paid directly.				
Employed & paid through contractors				
Employed through contractors but paid directly.				

5. Please give statistical information regarding the length of service of the different categories of employees in inferior and labour categories in the following form:—

Those between 0 & 1 year of service.

Those between 1 & 5 years of service.

Those between 5 & 10 years of service.
Those over 10 years of service.

6. How is recruitment made in various departments in respect of different posts (e.g. gangmen, keymen, mates, semi-skilled and skilled workers and others on supervisory posts in the Engineering Department; Luggage Coolies, Porters, Bihishtis, Sweepers, Lampment, Jamadars, unskilled workers on or about the different stations, Pointsmen. Gatemen, Signalmen, Engine Drivers, Station Masters, etc., in the Transportation and Commercial Department; fitters, cleaners and others in the locomotive sheds)?

Are proper registers of appointments to and dismissals from all these posts kept? Are these examined regualrl by administrative and personnel officers? Have there been any complaints on the subject?

7. What is the proportion of gangmen and other labour employed on the permanent way who absent themselves in the sowing and harvesting seasons? Is any preference given to them for re-employment over other persons?

8. State the system of apprenticeship for ordinary and supervisory posts and the terms, if any. How are apprentices selected and trained for appointments like A. P, W. I., etc.? Is the apprenticeship period counted towards total service?

9. Is there any system of graded or time-scale promotion? If so, please give details?

10. State the extent of labour turnover on your railway in respect of the different categories of employees in the inferior and labour staff for the years 1939 and 1943 in the form below:—

Average daily number of persons employed during the month or year.	Total number of employees who left during the month or year.					
	Permanent			Temporary		
	Retirement	Dismissal	Voluntary	Retirement	Dismissal	Voluntary

What are the reasons for this labour turnover? Suggest measure for reducing it.

11. Supply figures for absenteeism for the different categories of employees in the inferior and labour staff for the years 1939 and 1943. What are the causes of this absenteeism and how would you reduce it?

12. Have you any Service Rules governing the relationships of employers and employees? Please supply a copy of the same, if possible?

13. Have you any system of leave with or without pay for your employees? If so, please supply a copy of the same. Do those leave rule, differ from Department to Department on the same railway? Is there any distinction between higher and lower grades of employees on this score?

14. Is there any class of employees eligible to special benefits in regard to recruitment, starting pay, promotion, training, leave or other matters? If so, please give details and also the reasons there for.

15. Have you any officer to enquire into the grievances of your employees, *especially* in regard to security of service? If not, what other machinery have you set up for this purpose?

C. *Earnings.*

16. What are the wage-rates for different types of employees? What changes have occurred in basic wages (exclusive of all allowances) since August 1939?

17. Please describe in brief the principle determining the fixation of your wage-rates for different classes of your employees. Is there any uniformity of practice in similar departments on the same railway or on the various railways?

18. Please give details of dearness and other allowances, bonuses and gratuities paid to your employees since the outbreak of the war and state which of these are temporary and which are permanent. Are any conditions attached to their payment?

19. Give details of the scales of pay of different types of employees as also the wages and earnings of persons employed under contract.

20. How is overtime calculated and paid for? Is overtime work compulsory? Do you maintain any registers for recording overtime? Are these available to the employees or their representatives for inspection?

21. What deductions are made from wages and why? Have they any relation to pay?

22. Do you impose fines as a disciplinary measures? Is there a Fine Fund? Who is in charge of its disposal? What is the amount outstanding in it and how is it utilised?

23. What are the periods of wage payment for different kinds of employees? How long after the wage period are wages actually paid? State in detail the machinery used for this purpose. What arrangements are made for the payment of employees on the *line* and what attempts are made to see that the amounts due are correctly paid in the case of illiterate employees?

D. *Working Conditions.*

24. How many shifts are worked by different categories of employees in the engineering transportation and commercial departments on your railway? What are the number of hours in each shift and the times of commencement and ending? What are the number of hours worked per week and the total spreadover? Is any distinction made between continuous and intermittent character of work in this respect?

25. What arrangements are made for:—

(a) intervals of rest,

(b) weekly holidays,

in respect of different workers? Are they working satisfactorily?

26. How far do the International Labour Conventions apply on your railway in respect of:—

(a) working hours,

(b) rest days,

(c) other matters?

27. State the actual conditions of work of each grade of employees. Are these satisfactory?

E. *Welfare activities.*

28. Give a detailed account of welfare arragements, if any, made for the employees under the following heads:—

(a) Dispensaries and hospitals for employees and their families. Give the number of cases treated every day, prevalent diseases, qualifications of Doctors-in-charge, their emoluments, etc.
(b) Provision of portable canteens for employees working on the line.
(c) Educational facilities for employees.
(d) Re-creation for the staff.
(e) Free or concessional passes, uniforms, waterproofs, umbrellas, etc.
(f) Benefits to the dependents of the deceased employees.
(g) Any other item.

29. Give deails of houses provided by your Railway for different grades of employees with reference to:—

(a) Proportion of employees housed.
(b) Rent.
(c) Types of Houses.
(d) Sub-letting.
(e) Sanitation and water supply.
(f) Crowding and congestion.

G. *Trade Unions and Strikes.*

30. Are your employees organised into trade unions? State the position regarding membership, monthly subscription, etc. Has there been any agreement regarding wages, hours of work, employment, dismissal, etc. Please supply a copy of the agreement, if any, state whether in your opinion the unions are working satisfactorily or not.

31. Have you any Staff Committee? If so, give its constitution and an account of its activities.

32. Give details of strikes on your railways for the last fifteen years. What were the causes of such strikes and how were they settled? How far were the demands of the strikers satified?

H. *Safety Acts, etc.*

33. Are the following Acts rigidly observed on your Raillway:—

(a) Payment of Wages Act.
(b) Workmen's Compensation Act.
(c) Employment of Children Act.

What action have you taken to acquaint your staff with the provisions of these Acts? Have there been any complaints?

34. State the compensation amounts paid every year during the period 1939-44. Under what different headings were the Compensation Claims preferred?

35. Do you have any periodical medical examination for some or all of your employees? When a worker is adjudged medically unfit, what attempts are made to find him other work? Has he the right to be examined by an independent specialist in the event of an adverse medical report?

I. *Indebtedness.*

36. (a) Are your employees indebted? Give an idea of the extent of indebtedness among the different categories and the causes responsible for the same.

(b) Have you started any co-operative credit societies? If so, how are they working?

37. What is the usual rate of interest which employees pay on loans? What remedial measures are in force to reduce this indebtedness and to teach the employees habits of thrift, etc.? How far have they been successful?

J. *General.*

38. Please supply a copy each of the rules and regulations of your Provident Fund, Gratuity and Pension Schemes, if any. Do these apply to all classes of employees including contract labour? State the actual number of employees that benefit by each one of these schemes and the extent to which they benefit. Are these benefits adequate?

APPENDIX III

SUPPLEMENTARY QUESTIONNAIRES

Rickshaw Pullers.

A. *Magnitude of Employment.*

1. What is the number of registered Rickshaws in.....

How many of these are public Vehicles?

How many of these are private Vehicles?

2. What is the number of licensed Rickshaw pullers?

3. Are there any rules relating to Rickshaw pullers prescribed by the Municipality? If so, please give details.

B. *Ownership of Rickshaws.*

4. What is the number of public rickshaws owned by pullers?

5. What is the number of public rickshaws owned by *Chaudhris* and hired out to pullers?

6. What is the purchase price of a rickshaw?

7. What is the average life of a rickshaw?

8. What are the difficulties in the way of ownership of rickshaws by pullers?

9. Is the Municipal ownership of rickshaws a practicable proposition?

10. What are the advantages of the ownership of rickshaws by *Chaudhris*?

11. Are rickshaw stands auctioned or leased by the Municipality? If so, state the amount of the money realised from this source.

C. *Conditions of Employment and Hire.*

12. Is there any agreement, written or conventional, between *Chaudhris* and pullers regarding the terms and period of hire of Vehicles or any other conditions of employment?

13. To what extent are the terms of such agreement prescribed or enforced by the Municipal authorities?

14. Is there any other intermediary between *chaudhris* and pullers? If so, what are his functions and earnings?

15. Do teams of pullers hire out rickshaws on their own collective responsibility, directly from *chaudhris* or do the *chaudhris* engage their own teams directly or through intermediaries? (For Simla only).

16. Is the constitution of teams of pullers fixed or does it vary from time to time? (For Simla only).

17. Are the liabilities of pullers to *chaudhris* and others, individual or collective? (For Simla only).

18. Are pullers required to deposit any security before they are given charge of rickshaws? If so, indicate the source from which pullers obtain the amount required?

D. *Earnings and Hours.*

19. What are the rates of Rickshaw hire for the public?

20. What is the basis of payment by pullers to *Chaudhris* and intermediaries, if any.

21. What is the proportion of hourly earnings of pullers claimed by owners of Vehicles?

22. What are the checks enforced by *Chaudhris* on the pullers' earnings to determine their own shares?

23. What are the absuses of such a system of sharing of earnings?

24. Are payments by pullers to *chaudhris* etc., made daily? How are accounts maintained?

25. How do pullers share their earnings among themselves? (For Simla only).

26. What are the approximate total daily or monthly earnings (including tips) per pullers?

27. Who is responsible for the repair and upkeep of rickshaws hired out by pullers?

28. Are there any kinds of repairs, e.g., punctures, which are a liability of pullers?

29. In case of accidents involving damage to Vehicles, are the pullers responsible? If so, to what extent?

30. Who supplies uniforms? Is the wearing of uniforms compulsory? Who pays for their washing and replacement?

31. What is the license fee for pullers and who pays it?

32. What is the registration fee for rickshaws and who pays it?

33. What is the number of hours worked by pullers daily?

34. For how many months in the year do pullers work?

35. Is there any law regarding the attachment of pullers' earnings and rickshaws for debt etc?

E. *Housing.*

36. Where do pullers live?

Is accommodation provided for them by Municipality or by Government? If so describe—

(*a*) The type of accommodation,
(*b*) Density of occupation,
(*c*) Rentals,
(*d*) Sub-letting,
(*e*) Sanitation,
(*f*) Water and lighting,
(*g*) Arrangements for cooking, etc.

F. *Age and Health.*

37. What is the range of ages in which pulling is practicable?

38. Are there any rules regarding age-limits for pullers?

If not, is it desirable that there should be any such rules?

If so, please indicate their contents?

39. Are pullers medically examined before being licensed?

40. Is it desirable that they should be so examined?

41. What are the common maladies or diseases suffered by pullers?

42. Are any medical facilities available to pullers?

43. What is the average expectation of life of a puller?

44. What is the occupation of pullers during the off season?

45. What is their usual domicile?

G. *Indebtedness.*

46. Does any indebtedness exist among pullers? If so, what are their sources of borrowings?

47. What factors lead them into indebtedness and what is the rate of interest payable by them?

Questionnaire for Tramways and Bus Transport Service to be filled up by Supervisors.

Centre.....

Name of Concern.....

Type of Concern.....

Owner.....

Question 1.—State the changes which have taken place in the *basic* wage rates, both time and piece, (as distinct from allowances, etc.) since August 1939.

Question 2.—Describe the present system of shifts or relays for different categories of workers. What changes have taken place in the number of working hours per shift|relay since August 1939.

In bus transport concerns in which the shift system does not prevail state the average number of hours worked by employees on running duties and the usual 'spreadover' of working hours.

Question 3.—A. What is the wage period?

B. What is the period elapsin between the end of the wage period and the date of payment of wages and allowanes?

Question 4.—A. Are employees allowed any holidays with pay?

B What are the leave privileges allowed to employees including privileges regarding weekly leave?

Question 5.—Do wages differ according to the size or type of vehicle in charge of drivers and conductors or according to routes covered by them? If so, please give details.

Question 6.—A. Are any concessions granted to the employees such as provision of:—

(*a*) Cheap grain, Canteen or cloth shops.
(*b*) Housing—free or at concession rates.
(*c*) Medical facilities.
(*d*) Free or cheap supply of light and water.
(*e*) Free or cheap of supply of fuel.
(*f*) Free passes for travelling in their employer's vehicles.
(*g*) Uniforms.
(*h*) Others.

B. To what extent are the above concessions availed of?

Question 7.—

(*a*) Is there a Provident Fund for employees?
(*b*) Is it registered?
(*c*) Is it voluntary or compulsory?
(*d*) When was it started?
(*e*) Is it opened to all the employees permanent and temporary or only to some.

Give details such as:—

(*a*) Worker's contribution.
(*b*) Employer's contribution.
(*c*) Conditions to which claims of employees on employer's contributions are subject.
(*d*) Rate of interest paid.
(*e*) Rules relating to advances from the fund and repayment of such advances.
(*f*) What is total membership of the fund at present?
(*g*) What is the amount of the fund outstanding at present?

Question 8.—Are employees paid bonuses or gratuities such as:—

A. (*a*) Attendance bonus.
(*b*) Annual profit bonus.
(*c*) War bonus.
(*d*) Annual gratuity.

(*c*) Bonus for 'accident free' driving.

B. How many get it and at what rate?

C. What are the conditions for the payment of the above bonuses?

Question 9.—Are employees given any gratuity, pension or any benefits at the time of retirement? Give details regarding—

(*a*) Gratuity at the time of retirement.

(*b*) Pension after retirement.

(*c*) Other benefits.

Question 10.—Please give details about the various allowances granted since the outbreak of the war.

(*a*) Dearness allowance.

(*b*) Others.

Question 11.—Please give details regarding the various deductions made from wages.

Question 12.—Please supply information regarding the scale of pay and allowances (including rates of increment) for different categories of the staff.

LABOUR INVESTIGATION COMMITTEE

(GOVERNMENT OF INDIA)

Supplementary Questionnaire on Plantations

I.—GENERAL

N.B.—The statistics to be given under this section should relate to the latest year for which they are available.

1. What is the total number of labourers including their dependants living in your estate? Please classify the families as follows:—

	Working			Non-Working		
	Adult		Children	Adult		Children
	M.	W.		M.	W.	
(a) No. of families consisting of 1 member.						
(b) No. of families consisting of 2 members.						
(c) No. of families consisting of 3 members.						
(d) No. of families consisting of 5 members.						
(e) No. of families consisting of 6 members.						
(f) No. of families consisting of more than 6 members.						

2. Please give the total number of workers (men, women and children separately) employed on your estate during the pre-war month (August 1939) and during any recent month for which information may be available.

3. If possible, please give the age composition of your workers in the following form:

Those under 15,
Those between 15 and 55,
Those above 55,

If this is not possible, please give at least the percentage of workers above 55 to the total labour force.

4. What are the principal sources from which the labour force is drawn for work on your estate? Please supply figures by provinces, states or districts as may be possible.

5. What is the total number of settled labourers borne on your register and what is the average number employed daily? (Please give the number of men, women and children separately as well as the figure of each category for each month and for the year as well.) What is the average daily number of casual or outside (bustee or faltu) labourers employed during the year and during each month? What proportion of the settled labourers or casual labourers belongs to the class of general agricultural labourers in the district?

6. Is a labourer free to seek employment in any estate he likes? Is there any agreement or understanding among employers not to entice labour from another estate or employ a labourer from another estate without the approval of the latter estate?

7. Are outsiders required to take permission of the manager before they can enter and visit the lines? Is any meeting of labourers allowed without permission?

8. Describe the machinery and methods of recruitment of plantation labour. In particular, state whether the recruitment is by families and whether the *Sardars* or *Kanganis* work as the employers' agents or as independent professional recruiters. What are the terms of the agreement of recruitment? Please forward a copy of the agreement, if possible.

9. Is there a system of giving pre-employment advances to labour and, if so, what is the average amount advanced per worker or per family? How are these advances given and recovered? Are accounts properly kept and is each worker supplied with a copy of his account in his own language? What is the period of settlement of such accounts and what interest, if any, is charged?

10. Are the workers in Assam plantations cognisant of their rights under the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act, 1932, especially with regard to their right of repatriation? If not, what steps have been taken to make them aware of their rights?

11. Have any strikes taken place on your estate? If so, please give full details stating the dates of the strikes and the number of workers involved. What were the issues raised and how far were they met in subsequent settlements? What was the machinery employed for settlement?

12. To what extent and in what respects have labour conditions on your plantations improved or worsened in recent years, especially since the Royal Commission on Labour reported in 1931?

13. Express your views on the suitability of a tripartite machinery in each Province or State concerned for dealing with the various problems of plantation labour, such as, housing, emigration, welfare activities, education, health, etc.

14. What machinery would you suggest for periodical inspection of labour condition on plantations?

15. Are the provisions of the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act and Rules made thereunder being strictly enforced? If not, please state the extent to which evasion or violation is taking place in respect of any provisions and the methods or means of such evasion or violation.

16. In areas other than the Assam Tea Districts, what machinery has been set up to safeguard the interests of workers, especially in regard to recruitment and repatriation?

17. (a) Have you any suggestions to make for improving or expanding the scope of the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act or its administrative machinery?

(b) Are you in favour of extending the Act to areas not at present covered by it? If so, please give reasons.

II.—WAGES

(Please give information in respect of the same year as in Section I, if possible.)

1. On how many days in the week do the labourers work and is a weekly holiday observed? Is there any involuntary employment? Are there any paid holidays?

2. What are the normal hours of work—
(a) in field, (b) in factory?

3. (i) Are wages of non-factory labour paid on the basis of—(a) piece rate, or (b) at daily rates.

(ii) If (b), what are the minimum hours for a full day and how is overtime paid?

(iii) If labour is paid at a piece rate (or hazira) what is the unit of work for a full hazira?

(iv) If labourers are paid at daily rates, what are the wages of different kinds of labourers and for overtime?

(v) What is the piece rate or hazira rate? Is work in excess of hazira freely allowed?

(vi) What is your total wage bill during the year and how much of it was regular earning and how much ticca or overtime? Please give this information month by month and state the total number of settled labourers on your books and the average number daily employed, month by month, (men, women, and children should be shown separately).

(vii) What is the best period for earning ticca or overtime? How is plucking paid? Is it paid on the hazira basis?

4. On what basis are the basic wages (hazira or daily rate or any other piece rate) fixed? Please state this basic rate each year during 1930—1940 or any other period of 10 years and the average price of common rice in your locality during these years. Is there any agreement about wages among employers and is any employer free to change the wage rates? What steps are taken to increase wages if the cost of living rises? If wages are not increased, is any dearness allowance given or are foodstuffs supplied at a concession rate? If so, what has been the annual expenditure on dearness allowance or loss due to the supply of foodstuffs at a concession rate during the last 10 years? What are the other concessions, in money or in kind, give? Please state under what conditions these concessions are given and what is the amount spent each year during the last 5 years for different concessions and how many persons received the concessions? Please evaluate concessions in kind in term of money and state why they should not be abolished in lieu of a consolidated wage

5 If the basic rate or hazira has not been changed recently, please explain the circumstances under which this was fixed. Is any garden in your locality paying a higher rate? Please name the garden or gardens and justify the difference.

6. What is the wage period on your plantation? What is the interval usually elapsing between the date on which wages become due and are actually paid? Is there any system of settling, the account at the end of the season and, if so, please state why it should not be discontinued? Are any deductions made from wages for fine or otherwise and is the labourer informed of such deductions?

7. How is the leaf weighed on tea plantations and how are the accounts kept? Is the weighing machine tested at regular intervals? If so, by whom? Are any deductions made for dampness while weighing the leaf and, if so, on what basis?

8. How do earnings on plantations compare with those of agriculture workers in neighbouring areas?

9. Do labourers take leave when they absent themselves from work (on grounds other than sickness)? Are labourers informed by the employer when work cannot be offered to them?

10. What is the total amount of (a) Estate land, and (b) other lands cultivated by the settled labourers? How many families possess land and what is the approximate value of the produce per acre? What rent is charged by the estate and is a labourer liable to vacate the land on demand by the estate? How is selection of labourers for land made?

11. Are workers encouraged to keep cattle on the plantations? If so, are suitable, cattle sheds and pasture ground provided? Is any pasturage charge levied?

12. Are you in favour of the establishment of Wage Boards in different plantation areas? Give reasons for your views.

13. Are you in favour of applying the Payment of Wages Act and some provisions of the Factories Act (e.g., hours of work, etc.), to the non-factory labour on plantations? If not, please state why?

III.—HOUSING

1. Has any scheme for providing quarters of an improved type to labourer been adopted by your estate? If so, please explain the scheme briefly and state how many such quarters have been put up in each year since the inception of the scheme and at what expenditure in each year? If no quarters of an improved type have been built or only a small number has been built, please state why no progress has been made.

2. (a) What are the types of quarters in which labourers are housed on the estate? Please supply information on the following points:—

(a) Type of quarters
(b) No. of families living in such quarters.
(c) Total population living in such quarters.
(i) Kucha barracks
(ii) Pucca barracks
(iii) Single and detached quarters (Kucha)
(iv) Single and detached quarters (Pucca)

(*N.B.*—Kucha means earthen-floor and mud or bamboo walls. Pucca means paved or cemented floor).

What is the floor area of a single quarter and how many persons live in one quarter on an average?

How many rooms are allotted, on an average, to each family in barrack houses? What is the area of each room, on an average, and the size of a

family on an average, living in such barracks? Is a kitchen attached to each living room?

(b) Are windows provided in each living room? If so, please give details.

(i) What is the height of the plinth of the houses?
(ii) Is a paved yard provided in front of the lines?
(iii) Are concrete drains provided in front of the lines and, if so, of what type?
(iv) Is a bath room attached to each living room?

If there are common bath rooms, is separate provision made for male and female labour?

3. What rent is charged from labourers for their quarters and who pays for repairs? Please state how much the estate has spent each year during the last 10 years on housing on—

(i) new construction, and
(ii) repairs.

Please also state the amount of rent, if any, realised in each year during these years.

4. How many latrines have been provided for the labourers quarters and of what type, e.g., ordinary, bore-hole, "flush", etc.? To what extent are they used? What arrangements are made for cleaning the latrines? What is the proportion of the number of latrines to the number of living rooms?

IV.—HEALTH AND SANITATION.

1. What are your birth and death figures in recent years? (Please give the figures separately for each year and show the ratios of births and deaths per 1,000 of the population.)

Are births and deaths promptly recorded?

2. Is there any dispensary on the estate and is there a qualified doctor constantly available? If not, what arrangements have been made for the treatment of sick labourers? Are there any hospital facilities on the estate? If not, what is done with such cases?

3. Is treatment free to labourers and their dependants? Is any fee charged for such treatment?

4. Is any allowance paid to a labourer or a dependant if he is sick? If so, please state the rate of such allowance and the conditions under which it is paid. Please also state the total expenditure incurred every year by the estate on this account during the last 5 years.

5. (i) Is there any maternity clinic or any special arrangements for ante- and post-natal cases? Is any maternity benefit paid? If so, please give details.

(ii) Do confinements generally take place in
(a) the hospital, or
(b) the lines?

What payment, if any, is made to the parents at child birth at (a) or (b) above?

(iii) For how many weeks before, and after, confinement, respectively is free food issued to the mother?

(iv) Is any special diet given to the mother and infant in addition to (iii) above? If so, please give details.

(v) Is any free clothing issued to the infant?

6. Is there any provision for child welfare or periodical medical examination of children and adults? Please give particulars.

7. What arrangements are made for looking after children when mothers are engaged in work? Are any creches maintained by the estate?

8. Please give the following information for each year for as many years as possible, showing the number of cases treated in the estate dispensary and hospital:—

YEAR.	(a) Total average population.	(b) Cases of minor ailments.	(c) Cases of major ailments.	(d) Total No. of cases treated.	(e) No. of cases of malaria.

N.B.—Minor ailments include such complaints as skin diseases, burns, sores, bowel complaints, etc.

9. Please state the amount spent annually by the estate during the last 5 years for the provision of medical relief and sanitation. (This expenditure should not include expenditure on anti-malarial measures, provision of pure drinking water, etc.)

10. Has any anti-malarial scheme been started on the estate? If so, please explain briefly the measures taken. Please state the annual expenditure on such measures during recent years. What has been the effect of such a scheme on the general health of labourers?

11. What provision has been made for supplying pure drinking water? Is the water supply adequate and easily available?

12. Do you issue a free meal daily to all non-working children? If so, please give details.

V.—WELFARE.

1. Have any measures been adopted for the welfare of labourers and their dependants? If so, please explain briefly the scope of such work and the expenditure incurred by the estate on such work.

2. Are there any schools for adults? If so, when were they started and what is the average daily attendance.

3. Are there any schools for children? What is the contribution of the estate to such schools? Are such schools under the Education Department or under the estate? What is the number of children taught in these schools and what is the average daily attendance? What is the proportion of students to the total number of children of school going age? Is education free? Will attendance improve if children below 12 years are not employed by the estate?

4. What are the recreations of labourers? Are cinema shows or music parties provided at the expense of the estate? Do labourers make any contribution to such shows? How much has the estate spent for this purpose in recent years?

5. Is there much drinking among labourers? If so, what steps do you propose for the eradication of this evil?

6. Have your workers joined any trade union and, if so, what is their number? Is there any desire for combination among your labourers?

7. What arrangements exist in your estate for ensuring adequate and regular supplies of provisions to your workers?

APPENDIX IV.

List I.

List of Provincial Governments from whom replies to the General Questionnaire were received.

1. N.-W. F. P. Government.
2. United Provinces Government.
3. Orissa Government.
4. Madras Government.
5. Bihar Government.
6. Sind Government.
7. Assam Govenment.
8. Bengal Govenment.
9. Chief Commissioner, *Coorg.*

List II.

List of Indian States from whom replies to the General Questionnaire were received.

1. Rampur.
2. Cochin.
3. Travancore.
4. Mysore.
5. Gwalior.
6. Baroda.

List III.

List of semi-Government bodies from whom replies to General Questionnaire were received.

1. The Chief Inspector of Factories, N.-W. F. P., *Peshawar.*
2. The Chairman, Delhi Improvement Trust, *Delhi.*
3. The Chief Inspector of Factories, Bihar, *Ranchi.*
4. The Chairman, Madras Port Trust, *Madras.*
5. The Principal, Thomason College, *Roorkee.*
6. The Commissioner, Southern Division, *Belgaum.*
7. The Executive Engineer, P. W. D., Koraput Division, *Koraput.*
8. The Eecutive Engineer, Ganjam Division, P. W. D., *Behrampur.*
9. The Chief Inspector of Factories, Orissa, *Cuttack.*
10. The First Class Subordinate Judge and Ex-Officio Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, West Khandesh, *Dhulia.*
11. The First Class Subordinate Judge and Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, *Hubli.*
12. The Commissioner, Workmen's Compensation Act, *Ajmer.*

13. The Collector of Mining Branch, *Ajmer-Merwara.*

14. The Chief Inspector of Factories, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, *Delhi.*

15. The First Class Subordinate Judge, Sholapur and Ex-Officio Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, First Class Court, *Sholapur.*

16. The Master of the Mint, His Majesty's Mint, Fort, *Bombay.*

17. The Executive Engineer, Sambalpur Division, *Sambalpur.*

18. The Commissioner, Workmen's Compensation, *Bombay.*

19. The Assistant Director of Health, Northern Registration, *Ahmedabad.*

20. The Labour Commissioner, United Provinces *Cawnpore.*

21. The General Manager, South Indian Railway.

22. The Commissioner, Northern Division, Bombay Province, Shahi Bagh, *Ahmedabad.*

23. The Sub-Judge and Ex-Officio Commissioner, Workmen's Compensation, Gadag (Distt. Dharwar).

24. The Agent and General Manager, Bengal-Nagpur Railway.

25. The Chairman, Improvement Trust, *Cawnpore.*

26. The Secretary to the Government of Bombay, P. W. D. (Roads and Buildings) *Bombay. Castle.*

27. The Captain Superintendent, H. M. I. Dockyard, *Bombay.*

28. The Labour-Officer, Bombay, 65, Clerk Road Jacob Circle, *Bombay.*

29. The District Officer, *Balasore.*

30. The General Manager, North Western Railway.

31. The Chairman, Karachi Port Trust, *Karachi.*

32. The Executive Engineer, Mahanadi Division, *Cuttack.*

33. The Administrative Officer, Port of Cochin, *Willingdon Island P. O.*

34. Th President Engineer and Administrator of Civil Personnel, *Vavigapatam Port.*

35. The Secretary, Provincial Labour Supply Committee, New Block Opp. Sectt., *Bombay.*

36. The General Manager, O. & T. Railway.

37. The Chairman, The Commissioner for the Port of Calcutta Office, *Calcutta.*

38. The Labour Commissioner, *Madras.*

39. The General Manager, East Indian Railway.

40. The Labour Commissioner, Bihar.

41. The Labour Commssioner, Sind, Department of Labour, *Karachi.*

42. The Deputy Coal Commissioner (Production), C. M. E: *Calcutta.*

43. The Secretary, Bombay Port Trust, *Bombay.*

44. The General Manager, Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway.

45. The District Officer, *Cuttack.*

46. The Director of Industries, Punjab, *Lahore.*

47. The Chief Inspector of Factories, Assam, *Shillong.*

48. The Labour Commissioner, C. P. & Berar.

49. The Chief Inspector of Factories, C. P. & Berar.

50. The Civil Judge, Senior Division and Ex-Officio Commissioner for Workmen's Compesation, *Broach.*

51. The General Manager, M. & S. M. Railway.

52. The Executive Engineer, C. P. W. D., Cuttack Division, *Cuttack.*

53. The General Manager, Gaekwar Baroda State Railways, *Baroda.*

54. Mr. B. E. Dadachanji, Head of the Department of Studies in Economics, Nagpur University, *Nagpur.*

55. The Chief Inspector of Factories, *Bengal.*

56. The Commissioner, Workmen's Compensation, *Bengal.*

List IV.

LIST OF EMPLOYERS' ORGANISATIONS, COMPANIES, ETC. FROM WHOM REPLIES TO THE GENERAL QUESTIONNAIRE WERE RECEIVED.

1. The Patna Electric Supply Co. Ltd., *Calcutta.*
2. The Gwalior Potteries Ltd., *New Delhi.*
3. The Octavious Steel Co. Ltd., *Calcutta.*
4. The Sone-Valley Portland Cement Co., Ltd., *Japla.*
5. The Indian Planters' Association, Coorg, *Mercara.*
6. The Tinplate Company of India Ltd., *Gulmuri.*
7. The Indian Tea Association, *Calcutta.*
8. The Asbestos Cement Ltd., *Bombay.*
9. The Newton Chickli Colleries Ltd., *Parasia.*
10. The New Egerton Woollen Mills, *Dhariwal.*
11. The C. P. Syndicate Ltd., No. 2 Colliery, *Junnordio.*
12. The Sijua (Jherriah) Electric Supply Co. Ltd., *Bansjora.*
13. The Parasia Colliery, *Parasia.*
14. The Southern India Millowners' Association, *Coimbatore.*
15. The Engineering Association of India, *Calcutt*
16. The Trichinopoly Mills Ltd., *Trichinopoly.*
17. The Jaypore Sugar Co. Ltd., *Rayagada.*
18. The Ganesh Flour Mills, Co. Ltd., *Lyallpur.*
19. The Sandal Wood Oil Factory, *Mysore.*

20. The Mysore Sugar Co. Ltd., *Bangalore.*
21. The Andhura Paper Mills Co. Ltd., *Rajahmundry.*
22. The Sitaram Spinning and Weaving Mills Ltd., *Trichur.*
23. The Hilda Ltd., Floating Workshop, *Bombay.*
24. The Parry & Co. Ltd., *Madras.*
25. The Attock Oil Company Ltd., *Rawalpindi.*
26. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills Ltd., *Madras.*
27. The Western India Match Co. Ltd., *Madras.*
28. The Bombay Gas Co. Ltd., *Bombay.*
29. The Rajmahal Quartz-Sand and Kaolin Co., *Calcutta.*
30. The Krishna Mills Ltd., *Beawar.*
31. The Edward Mills Co. Ltd., *Beawar.*
32. The Maha Lakshmi Mills Co. Ltd., *Beawar.*
33. The President, Millowners' Association, *Beawar.*
34. The Bangalore Woollen, Cotton and Silk Mills, Co., Ltd., *Bangalore City.*
35. The Central Board of Directors Juggilal Kamlapat Group, *Cawnpore.*
36. The Buyers and Shippers Chamber, *Karachi.*
37. The Karachi Steam Roller Flour Mills Co. Ltd., *Karachi.*
38. F. F. Chrestion & Co. Ltd., *Domchanch.*
39. The Millowners' Association, *Bombay.*
40. Shree Durga Glass Works, *Barang.*
41. The Association of Indian Industries, *Bombay.*
42. The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association, *Ahmedabad.*
43. The Maharatta Chamber of Commerce and Industries, *Poona.*
44. The Employers' Federation of Southern India, *Madras.*
45. The Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce, *Bombay.*
46. The Indian Mining Association, *Calcutta.*
47. The Tata Iron & Steel Co. Ltd., *Bombay.*
48. The Champion Reef Gold Mines of India Ltd., *Champion Reefs.*
49. The Silk and Art Silk Mills Association Ltd., *Bombay.*
50. The Calcutta Match Works (India). Ltd., *Katihar.*
51. The Orissa Minerals Development, Co. Ltd., *Calcutta.*
52. The Bisra Stone Lime Company Ltd., *Calcutta.*
53. The Bird & Co., *Calcutta.*
54. The C.P. Manganese Ore Co. Ltd., *Nagpur.*
55. The Titaghur Paper Mills Ltd., *Calcutta.*
56. The Hindustan Vanaspati Manufacturing Co. Ltd., *Bombay.*
57. The Dhinoj Ginning & Pressing Factory, *Dhinoj,* Baroda State.

58. Messrs. Lallubhai & H. Ginning & Pressing Factory, Tanakhla, *Baroda State.*

59. Baroda Spinning & Weaving Co. Ltd., *Baroda.*

60. Shree Yamuna Mills Co. Ltd., *Baroda.*

61. New India Industries Ltd., *Baroda.*

62. Alembic Chemical Works Co. Ltd., *Baroda.*

63. Furniture Factory, *Baroda.*

64. Indian Hume Pipe Co. Ltd., *Baroda.*

65. Shree Sayaji Mills Co. Ltd., *Baroda.*

66. The Siddhraj Mills Ltd., *Sidhpur,* Baroda State.

67. The Lever Brothers (India) Ltd., *Bombay.*

68. The United Planters' Association of Southern India, *Coonoor.*

69. Khedat Sahakari Ginning & Pressing Factory Ltd., Baben P.O. *Bardoli,* Baroda State.

70. Baroda Industries Ltd., *Babhoi,* Baroda State.

71. Baroda Industries Ltd., *Tanakhla,* Baroda State.

72. Gujarat Bobbin Works, *Billmora,* Baroda State.

73. Baroda Industries Ltd., *Kaledie,* Baroda State.

74. Baroda Industries Ltd., *Bodeli,* Baroda State.

75. The Petlad Turkey Red Dye Works Co. Ltd., *Petlad,* Baroda State.

76. Keshay Mills Ltd., *Petlad.*

77. Jyoti Ltd., *Baroda.*

78. The Associated Cement Companies Ltd., *Bombay.*

79. The Tata Oil Mills Co. Ltd., *Bombay.*

80. The Indian Engineering Association, Calcutta.

81. The Indian Jute Mills Association, *Calcutta.*

82. The Gaya Sugar Mills Ltd., Gaya.

83. The Millowners' Association, *Indore.*

84. The Calcutta Flour Mills, Association, *Calcutta.*

85. The India Machinery Co., Ltd., *Howrah.*

86. The Indian Mine Managers' Association, *Ukhra.*

87. The Indian Colliery Owners' Association, *Jharia.*

88. Mazagaon Dock Ltd., *Bombay.*

89. Mckenzies Ltd., *Bombay.*

List V.

LIST OF WORKERS' ORGANISATIONS, UNIONS, ETC., FROM WHOM REPLIES TO THE GENERAL QUESTIONNAIRE WERE RECEIVED.

1. The Punjab Sooba Mazdoor Committee, *Lahore.*

2. The Gujarat Regional Trade Union Council, *Ahmedabad.*

3. The Press Employees Association, Nagpur City.
4. The N.E.W. Mills Workers' Union, Dhariwal.
5. The C.P. & Berar Bidi Majdur Sangh, Nagpur.
6. The Mill Kamdar Mandal, Baroda.
7. The U.P. Provincial Trade Union Council, Lucknow.
8. The Delhi Textile Mazdoor Sabha, *Delhi.*
9. The Indian Federation of Labour, *Delhi.*
10. The All-India Trade Union Congress, *Bombay.*
11. The Colliery Majdur Seva Mandal, *Chanda.*
12. Khandesh Regional Trade Union, Council, Amalmer.
13. The Khamgaon Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factory Labour Association, *Khamgaon.*
14. The C.P. & Berar Provincial Trade Union Congress, Committee *Nagpur.*
15. The Chindwara District Colliery Works' Union, Junnoddeo.
16. The Madras Port Trust Employees' Union, *Madras.*
17. The Karachi Dock Workers' Union, *Karachi.*
18. The Cigar Workers' Union, Virudhunagar.
19. The Bombay Provincial Trade Union Committee of the AITUC, *Bombay.*
20. The Madras Harbour Dock Workers' Union, *Madras.*
21. The Bengal Provincial Trade Union Congress, *Calcutta.*
22. The Madras Press Labour Union, *Madras.*
23. The Tuticorin Mill Labourers' Union, *Tuticorin.*
24. The Madras Provincial Trade Union Congress, *Madras.*
25. The Sind Provincial Trade Union Congress, *Karachi.*
26. The Tuticorin Launch Dredger, and All Power Boatmen's Union, *Tuticorin.*
27. The Rajahmundry Trades Union, Council, *Rajahmundry.*
28. The Textile Labour Association, *Ahmedabad.*
29. The Indore Mazdoor Sabha, *Indore.*
30. The South Indian Beedi Workers' Union, *Madras.*
31. The Coal Workers' Union, Giridih, *Bermo.*

List VI.

LIST OF MUNICIPALITIES, FROM WHOM REPLIES TO THE GENERAL QUESTIONNAIRE WERE RECEIVED.

1. The Resident Gadag Betgeri Municipality, Municipal Office, *Gadag.*
2. The Commissioner, Corporation of Madras, *Madras.*
3. The Municipal Commissioner for the city of Bombay, Bombay Municipality, *Bombay.*

4. The Chairman, Committee of Management Ahmedabad Municipality, *Ahmedabad.*

5. The Special Officer, Patna City Municipality, *Patna.*

6. The Chief Officer, Municipal Corporation, *Karachi.*

7. The Secretary, Municipal Committee, *Nagpur.*

8. The Chief Executive Officer Corporation of Calcutta, *Calcutta.*

9. The President, Poona City Municipality, *Poona City.*

10. The Assistant Secretary, All-India Municipal Workers' Federation, *Bombay.*

LIST VII.

LIST OF PRIVATE INDIVIDUALS FROM WHOM REPLIES TO GENERAL QUESTIONNAIRE WERE RECEIVED.

1. Mr. C. B. Parakh, B.A., LL.B., Advocate, Civil Station, *Nagpur C.P.*

2. Mr. Ram Rattan Gupta, Bihari Niwas, *Cawnpore.*

APPENDIX V.

Action taken on the Recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour in India since 1938.

The Royal Commission on Labour made 357 recommendations, a summary of which is given in Appendix I to their Report. Some of the recommendations were urgent and capable of early adoption, while others, particularly those which involved legislation, required detailed examination before being implemented. In regard to certain matters, e.g., health and housing, the Commission deliberately took a long view and laid down a policy and a programme ensuring a gradual and progressive advance. While undertaking a preliminary examination of the report, the Government of India found it convenient to group the recommendations into the following six classes according to the agency responsible for giving effect to them:—

I. Recommendations involving central legislation.

II. Recommendations requiring administrative action by the Government of India.

III. Recommendations involving Provincial legislation.

IV. Recommendations requiring administrative action by Provincial Governments and Administrations.

V. Recommendations requiring action of public bodies, e.g., municipalities, universities, etc.

VI. Recommendations requiring action by employers and their organisation or by workers' unions.

Statements setting out the recommendations coming under each category were prepared by the Government of India and circulated to various departments and Provincial Governments. The Government of India were to take the initiative as regards the recommendations included in the first two categories. Provincial Governments were to examine recommendations in the III and IV categories and were also required to being to the notice of public bodies and organisations of employers and workers the recommendations included in the V and VI categories and to impress on all concerned the desirability of an early and sympathetic consideration.

A report showing the action taken by the central and provincial Governments in respect of recommendations included in Categories I—IV was published by the Government of India, annually for four years from 1932 to 1935. In 1936 the report showed the action taken by the Central and Provincial Governments in the administrative sphere only. Regarding the recommendations requiring legislative action, the Central Government published in 1937 a Bulletin[1] entitled *Indian Labour Legislation* 1932—37 *with special reference to the Recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour in India* and it contains a full account of the action taken by the Central and Provincial Governments up to April, 1937. In 1937 and 1938 the Central Government published reports showing *further* action taken by them or by Provincial Governments on the recommendations. During war time, however, the Government of India decided to discontinue the preparation and issue of these publications.

[1]Bulletin No. 61 of Indian Industries and Labour.

As in any future planning of labour legislation it will be of great importance to review the action remaining to be taken on the major recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour, the Committee have examined the position afresh in the following pages. As far as the action taken by the Provincial Governments is concerned, the information given in these pages is based on the replies given by them during the years 1943 and 1944 to a communication issued by the Department of Labour on 30th September, 1943.

7. In applying compulsory education,
   (a) municipalities should have regard to the special claims of wards inhabited by mill workers;
   (b) it is desirable that the upper age-limit should be brought up to at least 12 years; and
   (c) employers might assist by lending buildings, by equipping schools and in other ways.

In Bihar free and compulsory education has been introduced in all municipalities at district headquarters with the aid of grants made by the Provincial Government; but no special consideration is shown towards the mill workers. As regards raising the upper age limit, the Bihar Government does not consider it feasible to take any action at present because the proposal is primarily made in the interests of the children of factory employees and there is no compulsion in any factory area in the province. It further considers that the proposal would necessarily involve additional expense which cannot be met at present; and that fresh legislation will be necessary for which the present time is not opportune.

Unemployment.

11. Government should examine the possibilities of making preparations to deal with unemployment when it arises, and of taking action where it is now required, on the lines of the system devised to deal with famine in rural areas.

With a view to dealing adequately with the problem of resettlement and reemployment in civil life of demobilised members of the Armed Services and discharged war workers, the Government of India have set up an organisation under the Labour Department. A Director-General of Resettlement and Employment has been appointed. He is assisted by 6 Directors who have either been appointed, or will be shortly appointed, at the headquarters. In order to facilitate the registration of the persons concerned and their placement in civil employment the country has been divided into 9 regions. Each region is placed under the charge of a regional Director who will have an advisory committee consisting of representatives of Government department employers' and workers' organisations. At present there are 17 Exchanges functioning and it is expected that by February 1946 their number will be increased to 71.

Steps are also being taken to have legislation for the setting up of the employment machinery. Although the primary function of the Resettlement Organisation is to deal with resettlement and employment of demobilised members of the Defence Services, it is hoped that the organisation will eventually develop into a permanent Employment Service closely integrated with the economic policies for achieving full employment and higher living standards for the people.

The Bihar Government appointed a Committee to examine and report on the nature and extent of unemployment among the educated classes, to investigate the possibilities of diverting more educated young men to industry and to make recommendations for reducing the volume of middle class unemployment. The recommendations of the Committee are being implemented in Bihar as far as practicable. In U.P. no unemployment among the working industrial class exists at present. The Reconstruction Committees in the province are, however, taking up the question of unemployment that may arise after the war.

Working Conditions in Factories:

26. Every factory should be compelled to maintain separate and sufficient latrine accommodation for males and females and adequate staff to keep them clean.

In U.P. it is proposed to incorporate this recommendation in the factory rules which are under revision by the Provincial Government.

41. An officer with medical qualifications should be appointed as an Inspector of Factories in every province, part or full time according to the requirements of the province. Certifying Surgeons should be empowered as inspectors.

In the Punjab the under-mentioned medical officers are working as additional inspectors of Factories:—

1. Director of Public Health, Punjab.
2. Assistant Directors of Public Health, Punjab.
3. Medical Officer of Health of Factories and Statistical Officer.
4. Municipal Medical Officer of Health.
5. Assistant Health Officers of the Labour Corporation.

In the C.P. & Berar as health and sanitation in factories is looked after by Civil Surgeons who have been appointed additional Inspectors under the Factories Act, the Provincial Government considers that in view of the shortage of medical men at present, the appointment of an Inspector with medical qualifications is not an urgent necessity. It proposes to take up this question after the war.

43. (a) Women Factory Inspectors are desirable in every province.

(b) Women inspectors should be of Indian domicile and not less than 25 years of age, and their pay should be adequate to attract the right type,

(c) If this be not immediately practicable, immediate appointment is recommended in Bengal and Madras, and for a limited period, of part-time women officials in provinces where there are fewer women and children in regulated industries.

A woman Assistant Inspector of Factories has been appointed in Madras. In Bengal, it is not considered necessary at present to appoint a woman Factory Inspector, as the employment of women in factories is gradually decreasing. The C.P. Government has, at present, under consideration the question of appointing a woman Factory Inspector.

44. Boiler inspection should be separated from factory inspection.

This recommendation has been accepted by the Government of U.P. and the necessary action has been taken with effect from 1st April 1944.

Mines.

110. The Jharia and Asansol boards of Health should be called Boards of Health and Welfare and each should be enlarged so as to give increased representation to employers and to include representatives of the workers chosen where possible in consultation with their organisations, and at least one woman member.

In Bengal consideration of the Bill covering this recommendation has been held in abeyance. In Bihar the labour is, at present, represented in Jharia Mines Board of Health by one official, namely, the Commissioner of Labour, Bihar, and one non-official.

Railways.

119. In Mechanical workshops the system of recruitment through labour bureaux is capable of development and together with the system of selection boards or committees would go far to remove grounds of complaint of favouritism and bribery in regard to recruitment and promotion.

This system is in force on the N. W. Railway. Other railways which did not have the system did not wish to introduce it as they found the current system satisfactory. The Railway Board does not also wish to enforce any particular system unless there was a clear necessity to do so. The development of Labour exchanges and Employment Bureaux on other railways will probably receive closer attention after the return to normal conditions when the Railway Department will be in a better position to re-examine the question in the light of past experience and the soundness of the organisation proposed.

129. On completion of one year's continuous service, all employees should be eligible to join a provident fund, membership being optional for those drawing under Rs. 20, compulsory for those drawing Rs. 20 or over per mensem.

During recent years the Railway Board has extended the fund benefits to a considerable number of staff. With effect from 1-7-44 staff with 3 years' service and over, irrespective of pay, are given the option of subscribing to the State Railway Provident Fund, while permanent non-pensionable inferior Railway servants whose monthly emoluments are more than Rs. 30 and other Railway servants whose monthly emoluments are less than Rs. 20 but not less than Rs. 15 irrespective of the period of their service are eligible to subscribe to the fund. Further, permanent non-pensionable inferior servants whose monthly emoluments are Rs. 30 or less but have completed 3 years' continuous service can contribute to the Fund and similarly non-pensionable permanent servants other than inferior whose monthly emoluments are less than Rs. 15 but who have completed 3 years' continuous service can contribute to the Fund.

153. In regard to statistics,

(a) nomenclature should be standardised;

(b) figures should be available (i) of salaries and wages separate from provident fund contributions and gratuities; (ii) of contractors' labour in different branches;

(c) statistics of labour turnover, and absenteeism (showing whether due to sickness or otherwise) should be maintained and analysed.

The position at present is as below:—

(a) The number and cost of railway staff are now maintained and shown in the Annual Report published by the Railway Board under the following categories for various branches of railway services, viz.:—

(i) Gazetted Officers;

(ii) Subordinates drawing pay of Rs. 250 per mensem and over or on scales of pay rising to Rs. 250 per mensem and over if they are on the old scales of pay and on scales of pay rising to Rs. 200 p.m. and over if they are on the new scales of pay.

(iii) Subordinates on old scales of pay rising to Rs. 249 per mensem but not to Rs. 250 p.m. or over and subordinates on new scales of pay rising to Rs. 199 p.m. but not to Rs. 200 p.m. or over.

(iv) Daily rated labour of all Departments and inferior staff of the Mechanical Department, and

(v) Inferior staff of all Departments other than the Mechanical Department.

(b) The costs of the various grades of staff are shown under separate heads, i.e., salaries, provident fund and gratuity. It has not been found practicable to maintain separate statistics of contractors' labour.

(c) In view of the additional cost involved and the conditions brought about by the War it has not been found practicable to give effect to the entire recommendation.

TRANSPORT SERVICES AND PUBLIC WORKS.

161. Consideration should be given to the provision in ports of welfare institutions for Indian seamen.

No action was taken on this recommendation prior to 1944. Since then the following machinery has been established by Government for seamen's welfare:—

(a) Central Seamen's Welfare Board with its headquarters at Delhi. The Board is empowered to advise Government on all questions concerning seamen's welfare.

(b) Port Welfare Committees whose main function is to co-ordinate all welfare activities for seamen at the individual ports.

(c) Directorate of Seamen's Welfare which supervises on behalf of Government all seamen's welfare activities throughout India and which is charged with the planning of seamen's welfare on a long term basis.

(d) Seamen's Welfare Officers who take an active interest in the health, recreation, club facilities, sleeping accommodation and provision of amenities both ashore and afloat.

For Indian seaman, Seamen's Homes or Clubs providing residential accommodation and other facilities have been opened at Calcutta, Bombay, Karachi and Madras. At Vizagapatam, there is a Merchant Navy Club which provides meals, light refreshments and games, but has no residential accommodation. Hospital facilities have also been provided at Calcutta, and Bombay.

163. The practice of nominating a representative of labour on Port Trusts should be extended to all the major ports.

Provision exists in the Bombay, Karachi and Madras Port Trust Acts for the appointment of a representative of labour on the respective Port Trust Boards. As regards Calcutta Port, it has been decided to include such a provision in the Calcutta Port Act when it is next amended but the present is not regarded as an opportune time for undertaking an amendment of that Act. With regard to Chittagong Port, it has been decided that it is not necessary to have a labour representative on the Port Commission. At Vizagapatam and Cochin no Port Trust Boards have been constituted.

164. With a view to decasualisation and to seeure more equitable distribution of employment, a system of registration of dock labour should be introduced in each of the main ports, supervised and controlled by the port authority assisted by representatives of shipowners, stevedores and labourers.

While it is considered that the present is not an opportune time for introducing a decasualisation scheme, Government are not opposed to the recommendation and have even encouraged such steps as can be taken towards decasualisation. Thus, at Madras, under the new arrangements made by the Port Trust Board with their labour contractors a minumum monthly income of Rs. 20 has been guaranteed for 400 shore labourers. The introduction of rationing and the organised distribution of foodstuffs at concessional or controlled rates have also facilitated registration of dock labour. At Bombay the Toliwalla labourers have, as a result of the grant of grain concessions, been induced to register themselves. At Karachi, the award of the arbitrator in respect of the opening of registration offices for stevedore labour has been accepted.

166. (a) The normal daily hours prescribed by law should be nine; with overtime permissible up to three hours;

(b) Payment for each hour of overtime should be required at not less than 33 1|3 per cent over the ordinary rates;

(c) The minimum age of employment should be raised to 14 years;

(d) Enforcement should be entrusted to the factory inspection department.

The consideration of part (b) of the recommendation has been postponed pending a decision on the Commission's recommendation regarding decasualisation and registration of dock labour.

Part (c) of the recommendation has been implemented by the Employment of Children Act 1938 which came into force on the 1st December 1938 and which prohibits the employment of children under 15 *inter alia* in any occupation involving the handling of goods within the limits of any port subject to any provisions of the Indian Ports Act, 1908. The enforcement of the Act has been entrusted to Inspectors specially appointed for the purpose.

MINIMUM WAGES.

173. Before minimum wage-fixing machinery can be set up:—

(a) the industries in which there is a strong presumption that the conditions warrant detailed investigation should be selected.

(b) a survey of conditions in each such industry should be undertaken as the basis on which it should be decided whether the fixing of a minimum wage is desirable and practicable,

(c) the trade should be demarcated and the composition and number of the Wage Boards should be decided, and

(d) as much as possible of the information likely to be needed by the Wage Boards, if appointed, should be collected.

174. When a decision has been reached as to whether the conditions in any case justify the setting up of machinery, particular attention must be given to the cost of enforcement and the policy of gradualness should not be lost sight of.

175. The industries referred to in Chapter VII should be examined in the first instance with a view to the need and possibility of instituting minimum wage-fixing machinery.

176. If the results of investigation show the need for minimum wage-fixing machinery in industries of this kind the necessary legislation for setting up such machinery should be undertaken.

The Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee in their more important recommendations Nos. 75 and 76 laid down the scale of minimum wages (1) for Jamshedpur, (2) for Collieries, (3) for Lime-Stone and Iron ore quarries, (4) for Metallurgical engineering, etc. and (5) for Sugar Factories in Bihar. The Committee also recommended that minimum wages for workers in Mica mine should be fixed after an enquiry and minimum wage legislation should be extended to other industries if it had been found to work satisfactorily. The matter in still under consideration of the Bihar Government which has decided that the detailed investigation should be undertaken by the Commissioner of Labour, Bihar. The question is under consideration of the Government of C. P. and Berar in consultation with their Labour Commissioner. No action has been taken in other Provinces but some of the Provincial Governments presume that the action will be taken in this matter on an all-India basis as a result of the report to be submitted by the Labour Investigation Committee and the recommendations to be made by the Social Security Committee proposed to be appointed by the Government of India.

This question has also been engaging the active attention of the Government of India for the last few years. It was discussed at the third meeting of the Standing Labour Committee in May 1943, at the Labour Conference in September 1943, at the fourth meeting of the Standing Labour Committee in January 1944 and Sixth Labour Conference in October 1944. It is felt that the need of some legislation in India on this subject at the present juncture is heightened on account of the necessity for affording protection to the large numbers of demobilised personnel and discharged war workers seeking employment in industries against a progressive lowering of wages which will be the inevitable tendency when, as seems likely, the supply of labour will be considerably in excess of demand. The Government of India have prepared a draft bill which is due to be discussed at the Seventh Labour Conference proposed to be held at New Delhi on the 27th and 28th November 1945.

HEALTH AND WELFARE OF THE INDUSTRIAL WORKERS.

193. Municipal councils and local bodies should devote more attention to vital statistics and at least in the larger towns and more important industrial areas the appointment of medical registrars should be compulsory.

In U. P. the Municipal Boards in important towns have been advised to appoint medical registrars for registration of vital statistics but the Provincial Government does not propose for the duration of the war to use compulsion. In Orissa a Public Health Code contemplating to have unified and better method of recording vital statistics is under compilation. In Assam also a proposal to evolve a better method of collection of vital statistics is under consideration in connection with the re-organisation of the Public Health Department.

194. India should have an Institute of Nutrition, as recommended by the Agricultural Commission, with a Director and sufficient number of qualified assistants. Publicity work should be part of its functions, propaganda material being prepared under supervision of the Director in consultation with provincial Public Health Departments.

A well equipped Central Institute of Nutrition has been established at Coonoor under the auspices of the Indian Research Fund Association. The Institute works under the direction of Dr. Aykroyd and his staff of special Nutrition officers. Intensive training classes have been held at the Institute annually and since 1937 some 123 pupils have passed and are now employed as part-time Nutrition Officers in Bengal, Bihar and the Punjab and in the States of Baroda and Hyderabad (Deccan). Twenty-nine Officers were also trained in a short special course held in 1945. Useful work has been done by the trained staff in connection with the diet surveys. Publicity work is part of the functions of the Institute and propaganda material is prepared under the supervision of the Director in consultation with provincial Public Health Departments.

196. Adulteration of Foods Acts should be in force in all provinces and local Governments should endeavour to make their provisions more widely applicable. Severer penalties should be provided and a clause regulating importation and sale of condensed skimmed milk should, if possible, be incorporated.

The Bombay Prevention of Adulteration Act has been in force in Bombay, Ahmedabad, Surat, Broach, Dhulia, Amalner, Sholapur, Ahmednagar, Kurla, Hubli, Kapadwanj, Thana and Poona City. The provisions of the Act have been extended to Godhra, Nasik, Belgaum, Pandharpur, Nadiad, Ankleshwar, Umreth, Ghatkopar and Dharwar and are being extended to Ville Parle-Andheri, Trimbak, Barsi and other towns. As regards skimmed milk, the Director of Industries has been asked to submit proposals for manufacture of dry milk products on a commercial scale. The Director's report is awaited. The Madras Prevention of Adulteration Act, 1918, is now in force in all mofussil areas in the province and also in one hundred Panchayat areas. The Government Analysts's staff in the King Institute, Guindy, has been strengthened and extensions of the Act to Panchayat areas are sanctioned whenever necessary on the recommendations of the Public Health authorities. The question of enacting a comprehensive legislation for the prevention of adulteration of all articles including foodstuffs is under the consideration of the Government.

Similarly an omnibus Bill on the subject has been drafted by the Sind Government. The Coorg Pure Food Act, 1940 was brought into force in the various local areas in Coorg with effect from 1st November, 1941.

197. In industrial provinces Public Health Departments should be strengthened to deal with industrial hygiene and industrial disease; at least one of the Assistant Directors of Public Health should have special knowledge of these subjects.

In Sind the knowledge of most of the industrial disease forms a part of training of the Officers of the Public Health Department of the rank of Assistant Director of Public Health. The Assistant Director of Public Health, Sind, being an *ex officio* Inspector of Factories, brings to the notice of the factory owners, during his inspections, any defects which are likely to affect adversely the health of the workers.

199. Industrial health research should be entrusted to the Indian Research Fund Association.

In December 1931, the Scientific Advisory Board considered the Royal Commission's recommendations and noted as follows:—

> "The Board, in accordance with the request of the Department of Education, Health and Lands having considered recommendation 199 of the Royal Commission on Labour proposing that industrial health research be entrusted to the Indian Research Fund Association was of opinion that there should be a bureau under the Central Government to deal with industrial health. The Indian Research Fund Association would gladly cooperate with such a bureau in carrying out any research or researches which might be necessary provided that additional funds were placed at its disposal to do so".

This was endorsed by the Governing Body of the Indian Research Fund Association in March 1932 but it has not so far been possible to implement the recommendation of the Royal Commission. An industrial Health, Calcutta, the subject of physiological hygiene included in 1939 Health Advisory Committee has been set up in 1945 which has already held its first meeting. This step may be expected to lead to research into special problems affecting industrial health. The Indian Research Fund Association has, however, been able to carry out independently enquiries some of which are detailed below:—

(a) Cholera enquiry by Dr. Tomb in the Asansol Mines between the years 1925-26 and 1930-31.

(b) Anaemia in women employed in Assam Tea Gardens by Dr. Margaret Balfour between the years 1926-27 and 1930-31.

(c) Anaemia in women employed in Assam Tea Gardens by Dr. I. E. Napier between the years 1935-36 and 1941-42.

(d) The general problem of tuberculosis which has received considerable attention for some years from the Indian Research Fund Association was specifically investigated by Dr. Ukil in an enquiry which began in 1927-28 and continued to 1942-43. This last enquiry was of a general nature but it has included a certain amount of work in connection with the health of industrial workers. The complete report has not yet been received.

It may be added that at the All-India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta, the subject of physiological hygiene was included in 1939 in the curriculum of students studying for the Diploma of Public Health. The Section of the Institute which deals with this subject is now called the Section of Biochemistry, Nutrition and Physiological Hygiene and in order that it may have facilities to investigate problems of industrial health among Indian workers, the Government of India permitted Dr. M. N. Rao, a Demonstrator in the Section, to accept a Study Fellowship from the Rockfeller Foundation. Dr. Rao has completed his course in the United States and has returned to the Institute where he has been appointed as an Assistant Professor of Industrial and Physiological Hygiene. Work on the problems in which Dr. Rao has received special training has already been started and arrangements are being considered for the training of persons for work in the industrial health field.

200. (a) Women should be appointed to public health staffs particularly in the more industrialised provinces.

(b) Initiative in welfare work among women and children should be taken by local Governments.

(c) Every provincial Public Health Department should have a trained statistical officer.

(d) Health propaganda should be carried on by Government and local authorities.

(e) Every municipal area should have its own Medical Officer of Health and adequate sanitary staff.

(f) Municipal health officers should belong to a Government cadre though paid by municipal funds.

(g) A similar health staff should be at work in extra-municipal areas where industry is being developed.

In Sind the Government pay grants-in-aid to certain private hospitals, maternity homes etc. The Sind Nurses, Mid-wives, Health Visitors Registration Act, 1939, has been passed to provide for the registration and better training of nurses, mid-wives, health visitors and *dais*. In Coorg a Public Health Department has been constituted for the whole of Coorg under the control of the Civil Surgeon, Coorg. In Assam out of the 11 existing rural Health Inspectors, nine belong to the Public Health Department of Assam Government.

201. Comprehensive Public Health Acts should be passed in all provinces.

The Bills on this subject have been drafted by the Governments of Bombay, Bengal, Orissa and U.P., but their further consideration has been held in abeyance for various reasons. An Act has been passed in Coorg known as the Coorg Public Health Act, 1943, and certain portions of the Act have been applied to certain local areas with effect from 1st January, 1944.

203. (a) Every provincial health department should include a malariologist on its headquarters staff.

(b) Every railway administration should employ a full-time malariologist and should give a lead in anti-malarial activities to the local bodies in their areas.

(c) Boards of Health and Welfare in mining areas should include on their medical staff an officer with expert knowledge of malaria and its prevention.

Malarialogist have been attached to the Public Health establishment in Madras and Sind. In Assam the advice and assistance of the malarialogist of the Assam Medical Research Society is availed of by the Public Health Department when necessary. In Coorg the Assistant Health Officer has received special training in malariology.

204. Surveys should be made by Government medical departments of the medical facilities required in urban and industrial areas. These surveys should be considered at joint conferences of the parties interested.

Public Health Acts and percentage grants should enable Government to supervise, inspect and insist on minimum standards.

No such surveys have so far been undertaken by most of the Provincial Governments. It is, however, hoped that as a result of the survey made by the Health Survey and Development Committee appointed by the Government of India and the Health Insurance scheme which is at present under consideration of the Government of India, adequate medical facilities will be available to urban and industrial areas in due course.

206. A hospital of any size should have a woman doctor on its staff who should be in charge of all activities dealing with the health and welfare of women and children.

In Sind lady doctors have been appointed at all civil hospitals except Jakobabad. In Coorg a lady Sub-Assistant Surgeon has been appointed permanently at the Virajapet hospital. In U.P. medical needs of women are catered for by Dufferin hospitals which exist in all important towns and cities of the province.

209. In the larger industrial areas Government, local authorities and industrial managements should co-operate in the development of child welfare centres and women's clinics. Government should give percentage grants for approved schemes.

In Madras in recent years local bodies have shown greater appreciation of the importance of maternity and child welfare work and Government is encouraging them and helping them to stabilise their work by giving half grants for the construction of centres and maintenance grants at the rate of one-fourth of the actual expenditure incurred by them on maternity and child welfare work. Madras Government also proposes to instruct the Director of Public Health (who is consulted by the local bodies in this respect) to see that when local bodies open new centres the need of industrial areas is also considered. The Tata Iron and Steel Company Limited has under consideration a scheme in consultation with the officers of the Bihar Government. In Orissa efforts are being made generally to establish child welfare and maternity centres through local organisation and to consolidate the work in the existing centres.

210. Trained mid-wives should be obtained for work in welfare and maternity centres.

In Sind schemes for the training of 40 mid-wives and 10 assistant mid-wives have been approved and put into operation. In Assam 119 trained nurses and mid-wives were employed for this purpose during the

year 1942. In Coorg 4 village women are being trained in mid-wifery every year.

211. Maternity benefit legislation should be enacted throughout India on the lines of the schemes operating in Bombay and the Central Provinces.

(a) Legislation should be confined to women employed full time in perennial factories covered by the Factories Act.

(b) The scheme should be non-contributory: in the first instance the entire cost of benefit should be borne by the employer.

(c) Government should have power to exempt individual firms whose existing schemes are at least as liberal as those contained in the Act.

(d) In the event of any general scheme of social insurance being adopted, maternity benefits should be incorporated and the cost shared by the State, the employer and the worker.

(e) The rate of benefit given by the Central Provinces Act is suitable for general application.

(f) The maximum benefit period should be 4 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth.

(g) The qualifying period should in no case be less than 9 months and might be fixed at 12 months.

(h) The more closely benefit can be linked with treatment the better probably the best method is to give benefit in any case and to add a confinement bonus only if a trained mid-wife or hospital treatment is utilised. Failure to use existing facilities should not disqualify the applicant, but bonus and benefit together should not exceed the amount laid down in the Act.

(i) The administration of the Act should be entrusted to the factory inspection staff and, wherever possible, to women factory inspectors.

Maternity benefit legislation has now been enacted in the provinces of Madras, Bombay, Bengal, Orissa, Assam, C.P. and Berar and Sind. The Bombay Act, 1929, with certain modifications, has been extended to Ajmer-Merwara and Delhi. The Bihar Government is considering the enactment of a maternity benefit legislation on the lines of the Maternity Benefit Acts passed in other provinces. The Central Government has passed an Act entitled the Mines Maternity Benefit Act, 1941, to provide for payment of maternity benefit to women employed in the Mines.

Sickness Insurance.

212. All methods should be explored that may lead to the alleviation of existing hardships arising from the need of provision for sickness.

(a) Material should first be collected for the framing of an estimate of the incidence of sickness among workers, special statistical inquiries being instituted in selected centres as soon as possible;

(b) Assistance might be obtained from (i) railways and Government factories, (ii) employers who already have sickness

benefit schemes, (iii) experiments voluntarily conducted by employers;

(c) The statistics should be collected with expert medical and actuarial advice and the co-operation of employers and representatives of workers.

(d) The preliminary enquiries might be conducted by the Government of India who might secure for the purpose of a small informal committee from the Central Legislature including representatives of capital and labour. These with medical, actuarial and statistical assistance should be able to advise as to the nature of statistics required, the centres where they might be collected, the sources from which, and the means whereby, they should be obtained.

(e) Thereafter the question of framing schemes should be referred to a formal committee with instructions to examine the material and to make recommendations for the institution, if and where possible, of definite schemes.

(f) Pursuing the line of building on existing foundations the Commission commend for examination the outline of tentative scheme based on separate medical provision, possibly by Government, and financial benefits in the form of paid sick leave given through employers on the basis of contributions by themselves and by the workers.

Prof. B. P. Adarkar was appointed as Officer on Special Duty, Sickness Insurance, on the 16th March 1943. A penal of advisers (representing Employers and Workers) was appointed to assist and advise him and an Actuarial Committee was also appointed for this purpose. In the light of the discussions with the Panel of Advisers and Actuaries, he prepared a comprehensive report on Health Insurance for industrial workers in August 1944. This report was considered in a preliminary way partly at the Sixth Labour Conference held in October 1944 and more fully at the meeting of the Standing Labour Committee held in March 1945. Labour Department also had the expert guidance of Messrs. M. Stack (Chief of Social Insurance Services) and R. Rao (Chief of the Asiatic Services) of the International Labour Office. In the light of discussions with them as also with the Health Survey and Development Committee and the Education, Health and Land Department, a revised integrated scheme of health insurance, workmen's compensation and maternity benefit was prepared by the Labour Department with particular reference to workers employed in perennial factories. A copy of the scheme was circulated to the Provincial Governments in May 1945 for opinion. Comments from the Provincial Governments have been received and a draft bill is under preparation. The scheme *inter alia* covers Employment Injury benefit (generally known as Workmen's Compensation) but its scope is limited to factory workers only. The Workmen's Compensation Act is much wider in scope and extends to a large number of categories, other than the factory workers who will received better treatment by the introduction of the Unified Scheme. For the sake of uniformity it is desirable to provide benefits similar to those stipulated under the Unified Scheme to categories of non-factory workers by suitable amendment of the Workmen's Compensation Act. It is, therefore, intended that legislation

should be introduced in two parts, viz. (a) a Bill to provide a Unified Scheme of Social Insurance and (b) a Bill to amend the Workmen's Compensation Act in a suitable manner.

HOUSING OF THE INDUSTRIAL WORKERS.

220. (*a*) Provincial Governments should make a survey of urban and industrial areas to ascertain their needs in regard to housing.

(b) They should then arrange for conferences with all interested parties in order that decisions may be taken as to practicable schemes and the method whereby their cost could be shared.

(c) Local authorities should be responsible for the development and lay-out of industrial areas and for the provision and maintenance of proper sanitary conditions.

(d) Where suitable Government land is available, Government should be prepared to sell or lease it to those who agree to build houses within a specified period.

(e) Government should announce their willingness to subsidise in this or other ways employers' housing schemes approved by them.

In Bihar the question of the housing of industrial workers was not taken up for consideration until 1940 when the Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee dealt with this important question and made several recommendations. At these recommendations will entail an extensive enquiry, the Commissioner of Labour, Bihar, has been asked to undertake the work as soon as possible. In U. P. the Provincial Government proposes to undertake the necessary survey after the War so as to have a correct picture of the actual state of affairs. In Sind a family budget enquiry has been held and this will provide some statistical data regarding housing conditions in working class localities in Karachi. Housing conditions have been surveyed by the Labour Investigation Committee also in 34 industries in which *ad hoc* surveys have been carried out.

222. Town Planning Acts are urgently required in the Bombay and Bengal Presidencies and would be useful in other provinces; if the Madras Act is ineffective it should be made adequate.

These Acts should provide for the acquisition and lay-out of suitable areas for working class housing: the opening up and reconstruction of congested and insanitary areas: Government grants and loans to approved schemes: the 'zoning' of industrial and urban areas.

The Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915, has been amended so as to enable municipalities to prepare scheme for opening up congested and insanitary areas. The recommendations of the Kale Committee on the question of modernising housing legislation, relating to the clearane and improvement of slum areas and introduction of housing schemes for the poorer classes were considered by Government and it has been decided that any scheme of improvement on a larger scale cannot be taken up without the enactment of a Special Housing Act and without Government subsidies. In view of the fact that any such legislation would be of a controversial nature it has been decided that its enactment should be postponed until the parliamentary form of Government is restored. In Madras the question of enacting legislation providing for an Improvement

Trust for the city of Madras is under the active consideration of Government. The Trust when set up will tackle the problem of housing the poor. The U. P. Town Improvement Act, 1919, contains sufficient provisions for town planning. There are also many provisions in the U. P. Municipalities Act which enable Municipal Boards to undertake many of the functions of town planning. The U. P. Government has also constituted a Development Board for Cawnpore to look after the development of the city. In Coorg there is a chapter in the Coorg Public Health Act for controlling construction of buildings and therefore no further action is considered necessary. Moreover, there are no industrial workers on a large scale in Coorg except in estates where the employers see to the housing of the workers.

228. Every effort should be made to evolve cheaper types of houses, Government might consider the possibility of offering prizes for plans and specifications of working class houses costing not more than a fixed amount.

In U. P. plans for cheap houses have been evolved in connection with the workmen's quarters in ordnance factories and steps are being taken to make such plans available to the public in particular to Improvement Trusts, municipalities and employers' associations.

235. (a) Steps should be taken to ensure that the agreement to pay compensation in accordance with the Indian Act is obligatory on all shipowners engaging Indian seamen and that dependants are capable of enforcing this agreement.

(b) The possibilities of giving Indian seamen the right to compensation whilst serving on ships registered outside India should be further explored by the Government of India and the Home Office. Special attention should be given to the possibility of extending the Act to Indian seamen whilst serving on all ships within India's territorial waters and on British ships engaged in the coastal trade of India.

The proposal involves an amendment of the Indian Merchant Shipping Acts, and the question of enacting necessary legislation is under consideration of the Government of India along with several other proposals for the amendment of the Acts.

Industrial Disputes

272. The possibility of establishing permanent courts in place of *ad hoc* tribunals under the Act should be examined.

The recommendation is under the consideration of the Government of India in connection with other proposals for revising the Act.

274. Every provincial Government should have an officer or officers whose duty it would be to undertake the work of conciliation and to bring the parties privately to agreement.

The Bombay Trade Disputes Conciliation Act, 1934, has been repealed and the Bombay Industrial Disputes Act, 1938, has been in operation since June 1939. The Act has so far been made applicable to the Cotton textile industry in Bombay City and to the woollen textile industry in Bombay City and Thana. Under the Act, the Commissioner of Labour acts as Chief Conciliator and 3 Assistant Commissioners of labour as Conciliators. Sometimes special Conciliators also are appointed. Only factories employing 20 or more persons are covered by the Act. As far as other industries

and factories are concerned, the Commissioner of Labour and an Assistant Commissioner of Labour try to bring about settlement of disputes between employers and employees by having informal negotiations with the parties. In U.P. the Provincial Government have appointed a whole time Conciliation Officer. In the Central Provinces the Government has appointed a Labour Commissioner in 1942 who performs these duties.

Health and Welfare in Plantations.

297. On all plantations managers should be required to maintain birth and death registers, and by inspection Government should ensure that these are reasonably accurate.

In Madras, the question of amending the Registration of Births and Deaths Act in this regard is under consideration. In Coorg under the Coorg Registration of Births and Deaths Act, 1932, which has been extended throughout Coorg, managers of plantations are required to send statistics of birth and deaths in the prescribed forms to the patels of the villages concerned who are to keep the registers of births and deaths under the Act. But the Managers are not maintaining births and deaths registers as recommended by the Commission. As the existing practice is working satisfactorily no further action is considered necessary by the Chief Commissioner, Coorg.

302. Standard minimum requirements in regard to plinths, floor and cubic space, light and ventilation should be prescribed by the competent authority which should have the power to condemn insanitary houses. Standard type plans to suit varying conditions should also be prepared and made available to garden managements.

In Coorg, the Chief Commissioner states that the owners of estates have as far as possible been effecting improvements to the houses of labourers and does not consider that any further legislation is necessary in this direction.

309. Maternity benefits should be provided for by legislation. The cash benefit to the mother should ordinarily take the form of half her daily wage for a period of 4 weeks before and 4 weeks after childbirth. In addition to bonus of Rs. 5 should be given, except where the woman refuses to avail herself of the skilled services of a woman doctor or a trained midwife provided by the employer. In the case of plantation labour the condition of a qualifying period of employment should be dispensed with.

The Bengal (Tea Plantations) Maternity Benefit Bill has been passed by the Bengal Legislative Council and is now awaiting its passage through the Bengal Legislative Assembly. The Madras Government have decided to watch for some time the working of the Madras Maternity Benefit Act before undertaking such legislation for plantation labour. A Maternity Benefit Act which also covers plantations has been passed in Assam in 1944 and has become fully operative from 1st September 1945, on which date the rules under the Act came into force.

Emigration of Indian Labour to Burma.

323. If any other industry finds it necessary to recruit in India, it should repatriate the recruited worker as soon as it ceases to pay him his normal wages.

325. There should be a medical inspection of emigrants in India before embarkation.

329. Assisted emigration should be controlled with a view to ensuring that the emigrant is guaranteed maintenance for a reasonable period or repatriation.

330. As soon as a decision has been taken regarding the constitutional position of Burma, the question of immigration should be examined by the Governmeent of India and Burma in consulttion with all the interests concerned.

The whole quesion of future Indian immigration into Burma, including that of the Indian labour is at present the subject matter of negotiations between the Governments of India and Burma. It is proposed that all evacues from Burma, including labourers, should be allowed to return to Burma. In the case of such evacue labourers it is not proposed to put any impediments or conditions regarding their return. It is further proposed that in future emigration of unskilled labour from India to Burma should be on a quota basis, quotas being fixed by the Burma Government in accordance with the needs of Burma and on the advice of an Emigration Board of an agreed composition. Further such emigration is proposed to be allowed only if such terms of employment are assured to the labourers as are agreed to between the Governments of India and Burma.

Statistics and Administration

341. Whenever possible, investigators engaged on family budget enquiries should receive a course of training with the Bombay Labour Office or some other office which has conducted a successful enquiry.

In Sind an Assistant in the Labour Commissioner's office has received a course of training at the Bombay Labour office. The Investigators will be working under his guidance.

346. (a) Thorough family budget enquiries should be undertaken in Delhi, Madras, Cawnpore, Jamshedpur and a centre in the Jharia coalfield.

(b) As soon as circumstances permit, the possibility of extending the activities of the Labour Statistics Bureau in Burma to the main oilfields should be considered.

(c) Assistance should be given by the Government of the Punjab to the Board of Economic Enquiry to enable it to institute and direct investigations in the industrial field.

(d) The possibility of establishing a Board of Economic Enquiry in the Central Provinces similar to that in the Punjab should be investigated.

Enquiries were undertaken in Madras, Bihar and Cawnpore in the years 1935, 1935 and 1938-39 respectively by the Provincial Governments concerned. As a result of the recommendations made by the Rao Court of enquiry, family budget enquiries are being undertaken by the Director, Cost of Living, in all the centres with the exception of Madras recommended by the Royal Commission.

347. (a) A Labour Commissioner responsible for the administration at labour subjects should be appointed in every province except Assam.

(b) He should be a selected officer and should hold the appointment for a comparatively long period.

(c) He should be responsible for the publication of labour statistics, should have the right to enter all industrial establishment should be generally accessible both to employers and labour should act as a conciliation officer.

(d) The headquarters of the Labour Commissioner should be in the chief industrial centre of the province.

(e) In provinces where part-time appointments have to be made, a combination of the functions of the Director of Industries and of the Labour Commissioner should be avoided.

Labour Commissioners have been oppointed in all provinces except Punjab, Orissa and N.W.F.P. In Bengal the Labour Commissioner has been authorised under the Industrial Statistics Act to collect labour statistics.

352. Where there is a substantial industrial population, it should receive, by means of a franchise or in some other way, the power to exercise an adequate influence over the policy of local self-governing bodies.

In Madras proposals for implementing the recommendation so far as the local bodies other than the Corporation of Madras are concerned are under consideration. In the case of the Corporation of Madras, representation for industrial labour is secured by the reservation of two seats for labour and by making the electoral rolls of the special labour constituencies of the Madras Legislative Assembly applicable to the conduct of the elections of these two reserved seats.

Appointment of a Labour Commission for the Central Government.

348. *A Labour Commissioner should be appointed for the Central Government.*

The Government of India have established a machinery to deal with industrial relations in industries and undertakings falling within their sphere, namely:—

(i) All industrial establishments owned or controlled by the Government of India;
(ii) Federal Railways;
(iii) Mines and Oilfields; and
(iv) Major Ports.

The organisations consist of the following:—

(i) A chief Labour Commissioner (Central) with headquarters at New Delhi.
(ii) Three Regional Labour Commissioners (Central with headquarters at Bombay, Calcutta and Lahore, respectively.
(iii) A Deputy Labour Commissioner (headquarters) at New Delhi.
(iv) Nine Conciliation Officers and 23 Lobour Inspectors (Central) located at various centres throughout India.
(v) One Central Inspector of Industrial Canteens (to be appointed shortly).

The function and powers of the new organisation are detailed below:—

(a) *Industrial relations and conciliation.*—These include in particular, assistance in the formation and maintenance of voluntary machinery in industrial establishments prevention and

settlement of trade disputes, and maintenance of continuous touch with the state of relations between employers and workers.

(b) Labour welfare (excluding welfare in coal mines for which a separate organisation exists under the Coal Mines Welfare Commissioner), including examination of welfare measures and advice to employers and Governments in connection therewith. The Central Inspector of Industrial Canteens will inspect and advise on the setting up of canteens in undertaking under the control of the Central Government.

(c) Operation of labour laws to the extent to which their administration is the responsibility of the Central Government (except in so far as separate machinery has been provided.

(d) Maintenance of information regarding wage rates and conditions of work.

The Chief Labour Commissioner (Central) the Regional Labour Commissioners (Central) and the Conciliation Officers (Central) have been vested with statutory powers of conciliation under section 18A of the Trade Disputes Act, 1929. The Chief and Regional Labour Commissioners have also been appointed as Supervisors of Railway Labour under the Indian Railways Act, 1890 and as Inspectors under the Payment of Wages Act, 1936, They have also been authorised to act under the Employment of Children Act, 1938, for Federal Railways and major ports.

Relation to existing machinery.—(1) Conciliation Officer (Railways) and Supervisor of Railways Labour. Hitherto the Conciliation Officer (Railways) has been responsible for conciliation work on the following Railways only: East Indian, Bengal and Assam, Bengal Nagpur and Calcutta Port Commissioners' Railway. Hereafter, the Chief Labour Commissioners (Central) and his officers will be responsible for conciliation on all Federal Railways and for administration of the Hours of Employment Regulations under the Railways Act. The Conciliation Officer (Railways) and Supervisor of Railway Labour and the Deputy Supervisor of Railway Labour have ceased to have separate existence.

(2) Labour Welfare Adviser and Assistant Labour Welfare Advisers (a) the Assistant Labour Welfare Advisers have been designated as Conciliation Officers (Central) and will work under the Regional Labour Commissioners (Central).

(b) The post of Labour Welfare Adviser has since been abolished.

Relationship of the industrial relations machinery to the administrative machinery of Departments and establishments.

Labour Officers (or Labour Welfare Officers, Civilian Labour Officers, etc.) in individual establishments will continue to function under their respective establishments or administrations. The Chief Labour Commissioner (Central), and his officers will maintain close liaison with the administrative machinery of various Departments and establishments.

Industrial Council

353. (a) In the frame-work of the future constitution, provisions should be made for an organisaion (the Industrial Council), which would

enable representatives of employers, of labour and of Governments to meet regularly in conference to discuss labour measures and labour policy.

(b) The council should be sufficiently representative but not too large. The representatives of labour should be elected by registered trade unions, and where there are no registered trade unions of any size they should be nominated by Government. The employers' representatives should also be elected by associations of employers, whose voting power should be approximately proportionate to the number of workers which their members employ.

(c) The Council should meet annually and its president should be elected at each annual session. The secretary of the Council should be a permanent official responsible to it for the current business throughout the year.

(d) Functions of the Council:

(i) to examine proposals for labour legislation referred to it and also to initiate such proposals,

(ii) to promote a spirit of co-operation and understanding among those concerned with labour policy and to provide an opportunity for an interchange of information regarding experiments in labour matters,

(iii) to advise the Central and Provincial Governments on the framing of rules and regulations,

(iv) to advise regarding the collection of labour statistics and the co-ordination and development of economic research.

354. If labour legislation is central, the authority finally responsible for such legislation must be the Central Legislature. If labour legislation is to be decentralised, some co-ordinating body will lbe necessary. The decisions of the Council could not be given mandatory power, but in certain circumstances it might be made obligatory for Provincial Governments within a specified time to submit proposals for legislation to their respective legislatures for a decision as to their adoption or rejection.

355. Votes in the Industrial Council should be recorded separately in three groups, one including employers' representative, one workers representatives and one the remaining members.

356. Where there is the danger of establishments being transferred to Indian States in order to escape regulation, an effort should be made to obtain the co-operation of the adjoining State.

357. (a) The possibility of making labour legislation both a federal and a provincial subject should be considered.

(b) If federal legislation is not practicable, efforts should be directed to securing that, as early as possible, the whole of India participates in making progress in labour matter:

(c) For States in which there is appreciable industrial development, the Industrial Council should offer a suitable channel for co-operation.

Though no provision has yet been made in the constitution for the establishment of the Industrial Council, executive action has been taken by the Central Government to give effect to the recommendation. Three Labour Conferences were held in New Delhi under the auspices of the

Labour Department of the Government of India during the years 1940, 1941 and 1942 respectively. The representatives of the Central Government, Provincial Governments and some of the Indian States' Governments were only invited to attend these Conferences. In 1942 Government decided to invite representatives of employers and workers also to these Conferences. The first Conference in which representatives of Governments (Central and Provincial), States, employers and employees participated was held in New Delhi on the 7th August, 1942. The Conference being convinced that a collaborative machinery composed of the representatives of Governments, employers and workers in India should be established forthwith for the consideration of all the questions relating to conditions of labour resolved that,

"A plenary Conference shall be constituted as follows:—

(1) The Hon'ble the Labour Member of Government of India—Chairman.

(2) 3 representatives of the Government of India including 1 representative to represent Minor Administrations,

(3) 11 representatives of Provinces,

(4) 6 representatives of the Industrially important States,

(5) 2 representatives of the Chamber of Princes to represent other States.

(6) 11 representatives of employees of whom 4 will be nominated by Government in agreement with the All-India Trade Union Congress, 4 will be nominated by Government in agreement with the Indian Federation of Labour and 3 will be nominated by Government as representatives of other employees' interests.

(7) 11 representatives of employers of whom 4 will be nominated by Government in agreement with the Employers Federation of India, 4 will be nominated by Government in agreement with the All-India Organisation of Industrial Employers and 3 will be nominated by Government to represent other classes of employers.

"2. The Conference shall meet at least once a year, the first meeting being held in Delhi and subsequent meetings held at such places as may be decided upon from time to time.

3. The Plenary Conference shall advise the Government of India on any matters referred to it for advice taking into account suggestions made by Provincial Governments, States and the Chamber of Princes and the representative organisations of employers and workers recognised for the purposes of the Conference."

The Conference further resolved "that a Standing Labour Committee shall be constituted composed as follows:—

(1) The Hon'ble the Labour Member of the Government of India —Chairman.

(2) 1 representative of the Government of India,

(3) 1 representative of the Governments of Bengal, Bombay and the United Provinces,

(4) (i) 1 representative to represent the Provinces of Madras and the C.P. & Berar,

(ii) 1 representative to represent the Provinces of Assam Bihar and Orissa,

(iii) 1 representative to represent the Provinces of the Punjab, Sind and N.W.F.,

(5) 3 representatives of Indian States, including one representing the Chamber of Princes,

(6) 5 representatives of Employers,

(7) 5 representatives of Employees.

"2. The Standing Labour Committee shall consider and examine such questions as may be referred to it by the Plenary Conference or by the Central Government taking also into account suggestions made by Provincial Governments, States, the Chamber of Princes, and representative organisations of workers and employers.

"3. The Standing Labour Committee shall meet as often as it may be convened by the Central Government for the consideration of questions that may be before it.

"4. The Committee shall be competent—

(a) to advise Government on any matters referred to it Government provided that copies of any such advice shall be forwarded to all members of the Plenary Conference,

(b) to report to the Plenary Conference upon any matters referred to it by that Conference."

The following general principles were accepted by the Conference for election to the Standing Committee:—

1. Representatives of single provinces will be selected by the Governments of those provinces,

2. Representatives of two or more Governments will be selected by agreement between those Governments—a system of selection by rotation might be adopted.

3. Representatives of States to be selected by the Governments of the States,

4. Representative of the Chamber of Princes to be selected in the usual manner.

5. Representatives of employers—

4 to be nominated by the Hon'ble the Labour Member in agreement with the two All-India Associations of Employers 1 to be nominated by the Hon'ble the Labour Member.

6. Representatives of employees—

4 to be nominated by the Hon'ble the Labour Member in agreement with the two main Associations of Employees,

1 to be nominated by the Hon'ble the Labour Member."

Sessions of the Plenary Conference and the Standing Labour Committee are being held regularly since August 1942.

Major Recommendations on which no action has yet been taken.

No action has yet been taken on the following major recommendations of the Commission:—

Recommendation No. 87.—In the oilfields statutory regulation of rest days, hours, health and safety should be undertaken. Government should consider whether this can be achieved by the application of appropriate sections of the Mines Act or by separate legislation.

Recommendation No. 184.—Workers' contribution to provident funds maintained by private employers and certified by Government for the purpose should be safeguarded against attachment.

Recommendation No. 262.—The Trade Unions Act should be re-examined in not more than three years' time; all limitations imposed on the activities of registered unions and their officers and members should be reconsidered so as to ensure that the conditions attached to registration are not such as to prevent any well-conducted bona fide union from applying for registration.

Recommendation No. 294.—A Statutory wage-fixing machinery should be established in the Assam plantations after preliminary investigation. (The Government of India have at present under contemplation a legislative measure for fixing minimum wages for workers employed *inter alia* in plantations).

Recommendations Nos. 314 & 315:—The employment, either directly or with their parents, of children before the age of 10 years should be prohibited by law in plantations. Representatives of the local Governments concerned and of the planters should meet in conference to consider what contribution each can make towards the education of children on the plantations.

Recommendation No. 317.—Baords of Health and Welfare should be established under statute for convenient planting areas.

APPENDIX VI.

Extent of employment in Various Industries.

Industry.	1939.	1943.
Mines.		
1. Coal	201,989	213,096
2. Manganese	27,452	24,271
3. Gold	16,188	13,578+
4. Mica. (a) Mining.	32,111	61,460
(b) Manufacture	124,000	140,000
5. Iron Ore	8,855	9,347
6. Rock Salt	879	1,692+
7. Mineral Oil	7,792	11,691
Plantations.		
8. Tea	925,237	926,461—(1942)
9. Coffee	98,570	115,378—(1943)
10. Rubber	32,947	46,887—(1942)

Extent of employment in Various Industries.—contd.

Industry.	1939.	1943.
Factories.		
11. Cotton	441,949	502,650
12. Jute	298,967	302,304
13. Silk	6,251	5,473
14. Woollen	7,433	14,167
15. Dockyards	23,477	45,000
16. Engineering (Total)	(159,761	280,662)
(a) Electrical	14,468	22,688
(b) General	50,346	110,227
(c) Railway workshops.	48,274	39,477
(d) Coach Building and Motor cars Repairing	6,824	20,626
(e) Ship Building and Engineering.	18,534	35,087
(f) Others	21,315	52,557
17. Cement	13,088	16,010
18. Matches	12,030	10,412
19. Paper	12,410	18,606
20. Carpet Weaving	*	1,657
21. Coir Matting	*	70,000
22. Tanneries & Leather goods	12,938	33,733
23. Potteries		4,836
24. Printing Presses	43,497	44,534
25. Glass	8,934	18,328
26. Chemical and pharmaceutical Works	37,979	68,484
27. Shellac	*	Between 25,000—30,000+
28. Tobacco	*	515,423
29. Sugar	76,908	93,014
30. Cotton Ginning & Baling	123,979	117,311
31. Rice Mills	47,446	51,385
32. Transport Services.		
(a) Tramways	*	15,000
(b) Buses	*	90,000+
33. Railways	669,153	889,036
Other Types of Labour.		
34. Port Trusts	*	70,705
35. Municipalities	*	54,352
36. Central P.W.D.	*	150,000
37. Rickshaw Pullers	28,098	40,882

*Figures not available.

+For 1944.

Remarks to accompany the Employment Chart.

Figures given in the Chart refer to the total employment in British India except where stated otherwise in the following notes. Employment figures for Indian States wherever available are also given below:—

1. *Coal.*—Figures refer to British India only.

2. *Manganese.*—Besides those in British India, the Indian States employed 3,554 workers in 1939 and 1,809 workers in 1943.

3. *Gold.*—Figures refer to Mysore State only and in addition 7,736 workers in 1939 and 6,358 in 1944 were employed by contractors but paid by the Mining Companies. In British India 143 workers were employed in 1939 and 219 in 1943.

4. (a) *Mica Mining.*—Figures refer to British India only. In addition, 27,164 workers in 1939 and 52,170 in 1943 were employed on uparchallas and in Indian States.

(b) *Mica Manufacture.*—Figures refer to whole of India and are an estimate. The employment in Mica factories during 1939 was about 22,000 and during 1943 it was about 45,000. The balance is made up by employment in the Domestic section.

5. *Iron Ore.*—Figures refer to British India alone. Besides, the employment in Mayubhanj, Keonjhar and Mysore States in 1944 was 1,500, 675 and 500 workers respectively.

6. *Rock Salt.*—The figures are for Khewra only.

7. *Mineral Oil.*—Figures refer to British India.

8. *Tea.*—Figures refer to whole of India and include 97,000 workers in 1942 employed by Indian States; separate figures of employment in Indian States for 1939 are not available.

9. *Coffee.*—Figures refer to whole of India and include 63,050 workers employed by Indian States in 1943 and 58,281 in 1939.

10. *Rubber.*—Figures refer to whole of India and include 32,125 workers employed by Indian States in 1942. These figures for 1939 were 28,034.

11. *Cotton.*—Figures refer to whole of India.

12. *Jute.*—Figures refer to British India only.

13. *Silk.*—The figures relate to British India only. The employment in Indian States in 1939 was 4,386 and in 1943 it was 7,198 workers.

14. *Woollen.*—The employment in Indian States was 9,768 workers in 1939 about 3,800 in 1943. In addition the woollen carpet and Shawl weaving establishments and the hosiery factories employed 3,382 and 264 persons respectively. According to an estimate made there were also about a lakh of handlooms engaged in the weaving of wool throughout the country.

15. *Dockyards.*—Figures refer to British India.

16. *Engineering.*—Figures refer to British India only.

17. *Cement.*—Figures relate to British India and comprise cement, lime and pottery factories together. Indian States employed 3,667 and about 9,000 workers respectively during 1939 and 1943.

18. *Matches.*—Besides the British Indian figure the Indian States employed 3,747 and 5,600 workers respectively during 1939 and 1943.

19. *Paper.*—Figures relate to British India; and during 1939 and 1943 the Indian States employed 887 and 1,100 workers respectively.

20. *Carpet Weaving.*—Figures relate to employment in the four selected centres, namely, Mirzapur, Amritsar and Srinagar.

21. *Coir Matting.*—Figures relating to Travancore and Cochin States only and are an estimate.

22. *Tanneries & Leather goods.*—Figures relate only to British India.

23. *Potteries.*—Figures relate to sampled units only at Calcutta, Bangalore and Gwalior.

24. *Printing Presses.*—Figures refer only to British India.

25. *Glass*—Figures refer to British India only. The total estimated employment for all India is between 30,000 and 35,000. The excess of employment over the figures given in the chart is made up by about 5,000 workers in Indian States and the rest by unregulated factories and cottage shops in British India.

26. *Chemical and Pharmaceutical Works.*—Figures refer to British India.

27. *Shellac.*—The figure is an estimate for the whole of India. This includes 510 workers in Indian States.

28. *Tobacco*—The figure is a combined one for Bidi, Cigar and Cigarette industries. The bidi industry is estimated to employ 500,000 persons throughout India. The Cigar and Cigarettte industries in India employed 3,300 and 12,121 workers respectively in 1943.

29. *Sugar.*—Figures refer to British India.

30. *Cotton Ginning and Balling.*—Figures refer to British India.

31. *Rice Mills.*—Figures refer to British India.

32. *Transport Services*—Figures refer to British India. The figures for buses represent an estimate only and are for 1944.

33. *Railways.*—Figures relate to all railway servants, on all railways throughout the country.

34. *Port Trusts.*—Figures relate to five selected ports only.

35. *Municipalities.*—Figures relate to seven selected centres only, namely, Bombay, Lahore, Madras, Calcutta, Nagpur, Cawnpore and

36. *Central P. W. D.*—An estimate.

37. *Rickshaw Pullers.*—Figures relate to selected centres only.

APPENDIX VII.

Questionnaire regarding Migration

Name of Centre.....

Budget Reference No.....

MIGRATION.

1. (a) Please state the name of the worker's native place.

(b) Has he any contact with his native place?

2. Does he or any member of his family own any land in his village? If so, who looks after the cultivation of his family land in the village.

3. Does he go to help in agricultural operations at the sowing and harvesting time?

4. (a) At what time of the year does he usually go to his native place?

(b) Does he go to his native place at regular intervals, and if so, at what intervals? What is the purpose of such visits and what is the usual duration of the stay?

5. Are his earnings from the produce of land more, equal to or less than his earnings in the factory|mine during his period of absence?

6. How often did he go to his village during the course of the last twelve months, for what purpose and what was the duration of the stay?

APPENDIX VIII.

Badly control system in Bombay.

(*An Extract from the Recommendations on Labour Matters of Mill-owners' Association, Bombay*).

1. The oject of the 'Badli Control System' is the decasualisation of badli labour so that badlis will get attached to each mill and obtain more regular employment. A large number of badli is of no advantage to anyone except the Jobber. On the other hand, an enormous labour turnover is a great loss to the mill. In addition the large amount of casual labour is a constant source of labour trouble. In order to improve the efficiency in the mills and minimise the discontent it is necessary to introduce some form of badli control. This could be achieved even if absenteeism which, of course, leads to the employment of badlis, was not reduced. The more important points of the 'Baddli Control System' are:—

(1) Special badli cards should be given to all badlis working in a mill on a particular day.

(2) Instructions in Marathi should be printed on the back of the badli card describing the rights and duties of badlis.

(3) On the following day after the cards have been introduced, any badli having a card should be given preferential employment for available vacancies. A badli cardholder should be employed on a similar occupation under any Jobber in the same department in preference to a new badli.

(4) Only after the number of badlis with cards wanting employment has been exhausted, should new badlis be employed. These should be given fresh badli cards.

This system should go on from day to day and month to month. At the beginning of a new month, fresh cards should be given to the same badlis, and their old cards recovered from them.

(5) In order to ensure that the badlis who have got cards attend the mill regularly for employment from day to day, Heads of Departments should initial the cards of badlis on each day that they attended the mill but could not get work. The Heads of Departments should initial the cards before the badlis are allowed to leave the mill premises.

(6) In order to ensure that the system is being worked in a satisfactory way it is necessary to employ a time-keeper or a ticket boy to wait at the mill gate for an hour or so after starting time to record the number of badlis with cards leaving the mill without employment from different departments so that when fresh badli cards are demanded from new badlis on any day the Heads of the Departments will be able to check up whether new men were being engaged in preference to badlis with cards.

(7) Where the mills find that badlis do not turn up regularly from day to day, their cards should be cancelled. A previous warning should, however, be given and badlis should also be informed that efforts are being made to give them continuous work. Where badlis carrying a badlis pass do not get work they have to get their cards initialled by the Head of the Department concerned before leaving the mill.

(8) Efforts should also be made by Managers and Departmental Heads to see that before a man is engaged on a permanent basis he has worked as a badli for several months and has had badli cards regularly during that period.

(9) Managers would find it useful to have statements made from time to time of the number of badlis engaged in each major departments to watch how the system is progressing.

(10) Mills should compile the 'badli return' and send it to the Association every month in order to find out whether the 'Badli Control System' is working satisfactorily or not.

(11) A separate register containing the names of all badlis should be maintained. On the first day of each month the names of all badli workers who have been given badli cards should be entered up serially in this register for each of the major departments. The day to day attendance of all the badli card holders should be noted. If a badli obtains work then his departmental ticket number for the day should be entered up against his name in the date column. If he came to the mills but did not get work, he should be marked present and if he did not call at the mill at all, he should be marked absent.

By entering up these details of attendance for each badli worker separately in a separate register, the Heads of the Departments would be able to maintain a check on engagements and on the issue of cards to men who attend regularly.

(12) *Revision of the Substitute Card.*—A revised form of the Substitute Card has been recommended for adoption by mills. Four additional headiings have been suggested for inclusion in the Substitute Card. There are:—

(a) *Date of engagement as badli.*—Here insert the date on which the badli card holder was first engaged as a badli in your mill. This would help to ascertain the length of service of a badli from his card.

* * * *

(c) *Remarks regarding Attendance and* (d) *regarding Efficiency.*—The information should be filled up from month to month at the time of issuing the Badli Card.

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(13) Engagement of Badlis. Preferential treatment should be given to workers who were thrown out of employment on account of curtailment of night shift work and who hold service certificates for badli work.

APPENDIX IX

WORKMEN'S RECORD CARD

(As recommended by the Millowners' Association, Bombay).

Ticket No. ..... Department .....

Workmens' Record Card	Mill						
	OCCUPATIONAL CHANGES			PERIOD OF LEAVE			
Name and Father's Name	Date	Occupation and Ticket Number	Reasons for change	From	To	Working days	Reasons
Surname Year of Birth							
Religion Caste Language spoken Can read Can write							
Address (together with Village, District and Province.							
Years of past service in THIS MILL							
Years of previous service in OTHER MILLS	BOMBAY ADDRESS (Record changes)						
Immediate LAST EMPLOYER							
Particulars of technical education, if any.							
Remarks Identification Marks (Thumb Impression)							

APPENDIX IX—(*contd.*)

Year		Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	
1939	T. No.													Avg. Mthly. earnings
	Wages													
	W.D. Absent													Total absence
	W.D. Sick													
1940	T. No.													Avg. Mthly earnings
	Wages													
	W.D. Absent													Total absence
	W.D. Sick													
1941	T. No.													Avg. Mthly earnings
	Wages													
	W.D. Absent													Total absence
	W.D. Sick													
1942	T. No.													Avg. Mthly earnings
	Wages													
	W.D. Absent													Total absence
	W.D. Sick													
1943	T. No.													Avg. Mthly. earnings.
	Wages													
	W.D. Absent													Total absence
	W.D. Sick													

REMARKS .....

DISCIPLINARY MEASURES

Warning		Suspensions		Fines.		
Date	Ref.	Month	No. of days	Year	1939	19
				Jan.		
				Feb.		
				Mar.		
				Apr		
				May		
				June		
				July		
				Aug.		
				Sept.		
				Oct.		
				Nov.		
				Dec.		
					1941	19

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